

**THE EFFICACY OF TEACHING PRACTICE IMPLEMENTED BY THE
UNIVERSITY OF ZAMBIA**

By

Musonda Luchembe

A thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy in Education

in the subject

CURRICULUM STUDIES

at the

University of South Africa

SUPERVISOR: DR H.J. KRIEK

CO-SUPERVISOR: PROF. J.G. FERREIRA

2020

DECLARATION

I, **Musonda Luchembe**, do hereby declare that *the efficacy of teaching practice implemented by the University of Zambia* is my own work and that all of the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references. I further declare that I have not previously submitted this work, or part of it, for examination at the University of South Africa for another qualification or at any other higher education institution.

Signature: _____

Date: _____

Student number: 53081102

DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my parents, Mr Beaton Zacharia Luchembe (late) and Enes Musonda for raising me and providing a strong foundation upon which I could learn and succeed.

The thesis is also dedicated to my dearest wife Felisters, and children, Musonda, Kapampa, Lombe and Mwenya for their love and support, and for bringing happiness to my life.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First, I wish to acknowledge the scholarly advice and counsel I received from my supervisor Dr H.J. Kriek, from the time he accepted the task of supervising me, until I completed my doctoral studies. Dr Kriek proved that he had an eagle's eye whenever he checked my work. He was thorough and provided excellent guidance to make this thesis a reality. I will always remain grateful to him. Prof. J.G. Ferreira was also exceptional and inspirational in the manner that she co-supervised my work. Her professional advice and encouragement are also greatly appreciated.

Second, I wish to acknowledge the support I received from the University of Zambia: it would have been difficult for me to complete my studies without the generosity of this institution in approving my study. I also extend my gratitude to the Permanent Secretary of the Ministry of Education and the Registrar of the University of Zambia for allowing me to conduct research in schools and at the University of Zambia.

Third, I have many colleagues to thank who contributed to my success. However, special thanks go to Ms Sitabile Chipalo, Mr Michael Mulaisho and Dr Noah Sichula for taking care of my courses during the time I was analysing the data. I wish also to express my gratitude to Mr Cosmas Makunka and Mr Peter Sampa for their encouragement. Thanks are also due to Dr Lighton Phiri and Dr Kenneth Muzata for helping me paginate the first part of the thesis (prelims) up to the beginning of Chapter 1.

Fourth, I am indebted to the study participants, my UNISA 'course-mates' and fellow members of staff, namely Ms Sibeso Lisulo and Ms Eunifridah Simuyaba for their inspiring message each time we met that 'we should complete our studies in the year 2020'.

Last, but certainly not least, I wish to pay tribute to my dearest wife Felisters, whose contribution to my success cannot be quantified in a few words here. She tolerated my long absences from home as well as my little involvement in home chores. Instead, while at home, she would encourage me to study even for an hour before taking a break. To you Felisters, I will always love you.

ABSTRACT

For many years, the process of training a teacher has been extensively studied and debated in the scientific and academic community worldwide. However, the literature reviewed for the study revealed that few studies have been conducted on teaching practice in Zambia. The aim of this study was to determine the efficacy of the teaching practice programme of the University of Zambia, to identify its challenges and to propose improvements. This study was therefore guided by the following main research question: *How effective is teaching practice conducted by the University of Zambia for the preparation of teachers to teach in secondary schools in Zambia?*

The study is informed by the third generation activity theory perspective. It is situated in the qualitative approach and the underlying epistemology is interpretive. The sample population was purposively selected and comprised the 'triad': 8 teacher educators, 24 student teachers, and 10 supervising teachers. Data were collected from interviews, focus groups and lesson evaluation forms. The data from the interviews and focus groups were analysed thematically, while the data from lesson evaluation forms were analysed using the content analysis method. To present and analyse the participants' views, key themes were identified, which included the lack of clarity and consensus on the role of supervising teachers in teaching practice, and that the implementation of teaching practice is beset with many challenges.

The study established that the short period for the implementation of teaching practice was a critical challenge to providing quality training to student teachers. Inadequate funds for teaching and learning materials and a lack of clarity and consensus on the role of supervising teachers in teaching practice were among the challenges. Most of the study's findings are consistent with earlier studies. One such finding was that student teachers demonstrated mastery of subject matter but had inadequate knowledge and skills in teaching methodology. Based on the evidence collected and analysed, the researcher established that the teaching practice implemented by the University of Zambia in schools is ineffective. Therefore, this study ends with recommendations to make the implementation of teaching practice by the University of Zambia in schools effective. One of the recommendations is that the School of Education should be separated from other faculties so that more time can be devoted to training and actual teaching practice in schools.

Key words: teaching practice efficacy, student teachers, supervising teachers, teacher educator, theory-practice divide, teaching practice triad, third generation activity theory and teaching practice.

ISIFINYEZO ESIQUKETHE UMONGO WOCWANINGO

Iminyaka eminingi, inqubo yoqeqesho lothisha sekucwaningwe ngayo kanye nokuxoxisana ngayo ngososayense kanye nama-akhademiki kuwo wonke umhlaba. Imibhalo ebuyekeziwe ngocwaningo lwamanje, kodwa iveze ukuthi, bambalwa abacwaningi abaphenyisise ngezinqubo zokufundisa eZambia. Ucwanningo lwamanje belufuna ukubheka ukusebenza kohlelo lwenqubo yokufundisa, okwenziwa eYunivesithi yaseZambia, ngenhloso yokubona izinselele kanye nokuphakamisa izindlela zokuthuthukisa. Lo msebenzi ubuholelwa ngumbuzo wocwaningo olandelayo: *Ngabe isebenza kanjani inqubo yokufundisa eyenziwa yiYunivesithi yeZambia, ukulungiselela othisha ukufundisa kwizikole zamasekondari eZambia?*

Ngokuholelwa yi-third-generation activity theory perspective, ucwaningo lusebenzise inqubo ye-qualitative kanye ne-interpretive ngaphansi kohlelo lwe-epistemology. Abantu okuthathwe kubo isampuli, ehlelwe ngenhloso ibiqukethe i-'triad' yabafundisi bothisha, izitshudeni ezifundela ukufundisa kanye nothisha abasuphavayisayo. Kuqoqwe idata (ulwazi) ngokusebenzisa ama-interview, ama-focus group kanye namafomu okuhlola izifundo, ngemuva kwalokho idata etholakele kuqala yahlaziywa ngokulandela izihloko (thematically), kanti idata yakamuva yona kwenziwa uhlaziyo lwengqiqithi (content analysis) ngayo. Ukwethula kanye nokuhlaziya imibono yababambiqhaza, kwabonwa izihloko (themes) ezisemqoka, phakathi kwazo kwaba nokungaqiniseki kahle ngendima edlalwa ngothisha abasuphavayisayo kwinqubo yokufundisa, kanye nezihibe ekusebenzeni ngokulandela inqubo yokufundisa.

Imiphumela iveze ukuthi isikhathi esifishane esibekiwe sokusebenzisa inqubo yokufundisa sibangele inselele esemqoka maqondana neqophelo loqeqesho olunikezwa izitshudeni zothisha. Akunamali elingene yokuthola imetheriyali yezinto zokufundisa kanye nokufunda, kanti futhi kunokungacaci kahle kanye nokungavumelani ngendima yothisha abasuphavayisayo kwinqubo yokufundisa, nakho lokhu kwabikwa. Ngisho noma imiphumela yocwaningo ihambelana nemisebenzi yangaphambilini, okutholakele okusemqoka kube wukuthi izitshudeni zothisha zikwazile ukukhombisa ukuqondisisa kwazo ngengqiqithi yezifundo (subject matter), kodwa bezingenalwazi olwanele, namakhono ngemetodoloji yokufundisa. Ngokulandela ubufakazi obuqoqiwe bahlaziywa, umcwaningi uthole ukuthi inqubo yokufundisa yabathwebule izifundo eYunivesithi yaseZambiwa, abayisebenzisayo

ezikoleni, ayisebenzi ngokufanele. Lolu cwaningo, luphethe ngezincomo zokushintsha lesi simo, esinye sazo wukuthi i-School of Education kumele sihlukaniswe namanye amafakhalthi, ukuze kusetshenziswe isikhathi esiningi kugxilwa kakhulu ekuqeqeshweni kothisha kanye nenqubo yokufundisa ezikoleni.

ABSTRACT: MANWELEDZO

Ndi miñwaha minzhi, maitele a u gudisa vhadededzi a tshi khou gudiwa nga vhuroñwane na u haseledzwa nga zwitshavha zwa saintsisi na zwa akademi u mona na lifhasi. Mañwalwa a zwine zwa tea u itwa zwino o bvisela khagala uri, fhedzi, hu na vhañodisisi vha si gathi vho sengulusaho kufunzele kwa Zambia. Ngudo dza zwino dzo lwela u vhona u vhona u shuma ha mbekanyamushumo ya ndowendowe dza u funza ine ya ñekedzwa nga Yunivesithi ya Zambia, ho sedzwa u topola khaedu na u dzinginya zwine zwa tea u khwiniswa. Zwiito izwi zwo endedzwa nga mbudziso khulwane ya ñhodisiso i tevhelaho: *Nðowendowe dza u funza dzine dza khou itwa ngei Yunivesithi ya Zambia dzi khou shuma u swika ngafhi, u lugisela vhadededzi uri vha kone u funza kha zwikolo zwa sekondari zwa Zambia?*

Musi zwi khou ñisendeka nga nyito dza murafho wa vhuraru wa kuvhonele kwa thyeori, ngudo dzo shumisa maitele a u sedza ndeme na thyeori ya ndivho ya kuñalutshedzele kwa zwi re ngomu. Sambula ya tshitshavha, ye ya nanguludzwa hu na ndivho, yo vha i na 'zwigwada zwa vhatu nga vhararu' vha vhadededzi, matshudeni a gudelaho vhadededzi na vhalavhelesi vha zwa vhadededzi. Data yo kuvhanganywiwa nga kha inthaviwu, zwigwada zwo sedzwaho na fomo dza u ela ngudo, zwine nga murahu data yo wanalaho kha izwi zwivhili zwa u thoma ya kona u saukanywa u ya nga thero, ngeno data ya zwa u fhedzisela yo livhana na musaukanyo wa zwi re ngomu. U itela u ñekedza na u saukanya mihumbulo ya vho dzhenelaho ho topolwa thero dza ndeme, dzine khadzo ha vha na u timatima nga ha mushumo wa vhadededzi vha lavhelesaho kha nyito dza u funza, na zwithithisi zwa tshumiso ya ndowendowe dza u funza.

Mawanwa o bvisela khagala uri tshifhinga tshipfufhi tsho ñekedzwaho ndowendowe dza u funza tsho ñekedza khaedu khulwane maelana na ndeme ya vhugudisi vhune ha ñekedzwa matshudeni a zwa vhadededzi. Masheleni a songo lingana a matheriala wa u funza na u guda, na u shaya u bvela khagala na u tendelana kha mushumo wa vhadededzi vha lavhelesaho ndowendowe dza u funa, na zwone zwo vhigiwa. Musi vhunzhi ha mawanwa a ngudo a tshi elana na a mishumo ya u rangani, hu na mawanwa a kungaho a uri matshudeni vha zwa vhadededzi vho kona u sumbedzisa u ñivha mafhungo a thero dzavho, fhedzi vha vha vha si na ndivho yo linganaho ya zwikili, kha ngona dza u funza. Zwo ñisendeka nga vhuñanzi ho

kuvhanganyiwaho na u saukanywa, muṭodisisi o wana uri ndowendowe dza u funza dzine vhatelwadigirii vha Yunivesithi ya Zambia vha shumisa zwikoloni, a dzi tou shuma. Ngudo dzo khunyeledza uri hu vhe na themendelo dzo vhalaho dza u shandukisa nyimele ya zwithu, zwine zwa sia Tshikolo tsha zwa Pfunzo tshi tshi tea u fhandekanywa na miṇwe mihasho uri hu vhe na tshifhinga tshinzhi tsha vhugudisi na ndowendowe dza u funza zwikoloni.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION.....	i
DEDICATION.....	ii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	iii
ABSTRACT.....	iv
TABLE OF CONTENTS.....	x
APPENDICES.....	xvi
LIST OF FIGURES AND TABLES.....	xvii
ABBREVIATIONS.....	xviii
 CHAPTER 1 ORIENTATION.....	 1
1.1. INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.2 PERSONAL EXPERIENCE, CONTEXT AND JUSTIFICATION FOR THE STUDY	5
1.2.1 Personal experience.....	5
1.2.2 Context of the study.....	7
1.2.3 Justification for the study	9
1.3 A BRIEF OVERVIEW OF TEACHING PRACTICE.....	11
1.4 THE PROBLEM STATEMENT	13
1.5 THE RESEARCH QUESTIONS.....	15
1.6 THE AIM AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY	16
1.6.1 Research aim	16
1.6.2 Research objectives	16
1.7 THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES	16
1.8 METHODOLOGICAL ISSUES.....	17
1.9 DELIMITATION OF THE STUDY.....	18
1.10 DEFINITION OF TERMS	19
1.11 ORGANISATION OF THE THESIS.....	19
1.12 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER.....	21
 CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW.....	 22
2.1 INTRODUCTION.....	22
2.2 AN OVERVIEW OF TEACHER EDUCATION AND TEACHING PRACTICE	23
2.2.1 Meaning of teacher education and teaching practice	23
2.2.2 A global history of teacher education and teaching practice.....	24
2.3 TEACHING PRACTICE	26
2.3.1 Meaning of teaching practice.....	26
2.3.2 Viewpoints of scholars on the importance of teaching practice	28
2.3.3 Rationale for teaching practice	29
2.3.4 Objectives of teaching practice.....	31
2.4 MODELS AND ORGANISATION OF TEACHING PRACTICE	33
2.4.1 Models of teaching practice.....	33
2.4.2 Organisation of teaching practice in selected countries.....	33

2.4.2.1	Similarities in the organisation of teaching practice	37
2.4.2.2	Differences in the organisation of teaching practice	39
2.5	TEACHER EDUCATION AND EDUCATION POLICY IN ZAMBIA.....	42
2.5.1	Historical development of teacher education in Zambia	43
2.5.1.1	Teacher education in the pre-independence era	43
2.5.1.2	Teacher education from 1964 to 1989.....	43
2.5.1.3	Teacher education from 1990 to date.....	44
2.6.2	National policies on education in Zambia	45
2.6.2.1	Education Reform Policy (1977).....	46
2.6.2.2	Focus on Learning (1992)	46
2.6.2.3	Educating Our Future (1996).....	47
2.6.3	Implications of the education policies on teacher training in Zambia	47
2.7	TEACHING PRACTICE IN ZAMBIA.....	50
2.7.1	Teaching practice at the University of Zambia.....	50
2.7.2	Selected studies on teaching practice in Zambia	52
2.7.2.1	Pre-service primary teacher education in Zambia by Moyo (1980)	53
2.7.2.2	Pre-service teacher education programme responsiveness to schools and communities by Masaiti and Manchishi (2011).....	54
2.7.2.3	University of Zambia school teaching practice by Manchishi and Mwanza (2013).....	55
2.7.2.4	Theory against practice: Training teachers in a vacuum by Simuyaba, Banda, Mweemba and Muleya (2015).....	57
2.8	THE ROLE OF THE TRIAD IN TEACHING PRACTICE	58
2.8.1	Role of the supervising teacher	59
2.8.2	Role of the teacher educator	60
2.8.3	Role of the student teacher	62
2.9	EVALUATION AND SUPERVISION OF TEACHING PRACTICE.....	63
2.10	THE TRIAD ON THE EFFECTIVENESS OF TEACHING PRACTICE.....	65
2.10.1	The task of student teachers	65
2.10.2	The task of supervising teachers.....	66
2.10.3	The task of teacher educators	67
2.10.4	Concluding remarks on the effectiveness of teaching practice.....	68
2.11	MOST SIGNIFICANT CHALLENGES OF TEACHING PRACTICE	69
2.12	CONTRIBUTION OF THE CURRENT STUDY	73
2.13	SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER.....	74
CHAPTER 3 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK.....		76
3.1	INTRODUCTION.....	76
3.2	ORIGIN AND DEVELOPMENT OF THE ACTIVITY THEORY	77
3.2.1	Origin of the activity theory	77
3.2.2	Development of the activity theory	78
3.2.2.1	First generation activity theory.....	78
3.2.2.2	Second generation activity theory	80
3.2.2.3	Third generation activity theory	81

3.2.3	Engeström's principles of the activity theory.....	82
3.2.4	Key elements of the activity theory	84
3.2.5	Contradictions of the cultural-historical activity theory (CHAT).....	85
3.3	SELECTION OF THE THEORY	87
3.3.1	Justification for using the activity theory	87
3.3.2	Selected studies that have used activity theory	88
3.3.2.1	The changing work of teacher educators in Aotearoa, New Zealand	88
3.3.2.2	Perceptions of students about learning	90
3.3.2.3	Teaching practice in Malawi	91
3.3.2.4	The pedagogical features enabling successful inter-professional practice	92
3.3.3	Lessons learned	93
3.4	CONTEXT OF TEACHING PRACTICE	95
3.4.1	Teaching practice as an interactive activity	95
3.4.2	Teaching practice as a process.....	97
3.5	THE THIRD GENERATION ACTIVITY THEORY AS THE THEORETICAL LENS FOR THE STUDY.....	98
3.5.1	Community and context.....	99
3.5.2	Rules	100
3.5.3	Subject	100
3.5.4	Division of labour.....	101
3.5.5	Object/goal	101
3.5.6	Tools.....	101
3.5.7	Outcome.....	102
3.6	SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER.....	104
CHAPTER 4 METHODOLOGY.....		105
4.1	INTRODUCTION	105
4.2	RESEARCH DESIGN	106
4.2.1	The interpretive paradigm.....	106
4.2.2	Qualitative research approach.....	109
4.2.2.1	The main characteristics of a qualitative research approach.....	110
4.2.2.2	Implementing a case study design	111
4.3	POPULATION, PARTICIPANT SELECTION AND SAMPLING METHOD	112
4.3.1	Population	112
4.3.2	Participant selection	112
4.3.3	Sampling method.....	114
4.3.4	Participants.....	116
4.3.4.1	Teacher educators	116
4.3.4.2	Supervising teachers.....	116
4.3.4.3	Student teachers	117
4.3.5	Lesson evaluation form	118
4.4	DATA COLLECTION METHODS.....	118
4.4.1	Interviews	119
4.4.2	Focus groups.....	120

4.4.3	Document analysis	120
4.5	DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES	123
4.5.1	Semi-structured interview schedule.....	123
4.5.2	Focus group discussion	125
4.5.3	Lesson evaluation form	126
4.6	DATA PROCESSING AND ANALYSIS.....	127
4.6.1	Generating raw data	129
4.6.2	Transcribing data.....	129
4.6.3	Organising data	131
4.6.3.1	Tabulating data.....	131
4.6.3.2	Assigning symbols to participants and documents	132
4.6.4	Creating themes	133
4.6.4.1	Thematic analysis.....	133
4.6.4.2	Content analysis.....	135
4.6.5	Interpretation and presentation of findings	136
4.6.5.1	Interpretation of findings	136
4.6.5.2	Presentation of findings	137
4.7	TRUSTWORTHINESS	138
4.7.1	Credibility.....	139
4.7.2	Dependability.....	141
4.7.3	Confirmability.....	142
4.7.4	Transferability	143
4.8	ETHICAL PRINCIPLES	143
4.9	SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER.....	146
CHAPTER 5 PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS...		148
5.1	INTRODUCTION	148
5.2	DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILES OF PARTICIPANTS	149
5.2.1	Teacher educators.....	149
5.2.2	Supervising teachers	150
5.2.3	Student teachers	151
5.3	ASSIGNING SYMBOLS	152
5.3.1	Symbols for participants	152
5.3.2	Symbols for lesson evaluation forms	153
5.4	RESEARCH FINDINGS.....	153
5.4.1	Findings for the first three research questions.....	154
5.4.2	Participants' conceptualisation of teaching practice	154
5.4.2.1	To practise how to teach pupils in a school class.....	155
5.4.2.2	To apply teaching methods in class	156
5.4.2.3	To learn how to manage and control a class	157
5.4.3	Participants' views on the preparatory activities for teaching practice	160
5.4.3.1	Learning about foundation, content and methods courses	160
5.4.3.2	Orientation of student teachers to school (work) environment.....	162
5.4.4	Participants' views on the implementation of teaching practice	165

5.4.4.1	Teaching practice was implemented over a short period	166
5.4.4.2	Student teachers had adequate knowledge of subject matter	167
5.4.4.3	Student teachers had inadequate knowledge and skills in teaching methodology	168
5.4.4.4	No prior arrangements were made for teaching practice with schools	171
5.4.5	Participants' views on supervision and evaluation of student teachers ...	174
5.4.5.1	Major focus areas for evaluation	174
5.4.5.2	Assessment criteria for student teachers	176
5.4.5.3	Non-provision of professional training or advice to supervising teachers	179
5.4.5.4	Lack of joint reviews of the teaching practice programme.....	181
5.4.5.5	Effectiveness of the teaching practice programme.....	182
5.5	FINDINGS FOR THE FOURTH RESEARCH QUESTION	184
5.5.1	Participants' interpretation of the role of supervising teachers in teaching practice.....	184
5.5.1.1	Monitoring, guiding and evaluating student teachers	184
5.5.1.2	Providing an enabling and supportive environment to student teachers .	186
5.5.1.3	Instilling professional work practices in student teachers	187
5.6	FINDINGS OF THE FIFTH RESEARCH QUESTION.....	189
5.6.1	Participants' views on the challenges of teaching practice	189
5.6.1.1	Limited time for lectures and peer teaching.....	190
5.6.1.2	Inadequate funds for teaching and learning materials.....	191
5.6.1.3	Lack of coordination and collaboration among staff	192
5.6.1.4	The period for teaching practice is short	193
5.6.1.5	Student teachers' lack of commitment towards teaching practice	194
5.7	FINDINGS FOR THE SIXTH RESEARCH QUESTION.....	195
5.7.1	Participants' suggestions to improve the implementation of teaching practice by the University of Zambia	195
5.7.1.1	More time should be allocated to teaching methods, peer teaching and teaching practice	196
5.7.1.2	Student teachers should be provided with adequate teaching materials .	198
5.7.1.3	The School of Education should be separated from other schools.....	198
5.8	DOCUMENT ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS	200
5.8.1	Awarding a final grade to student teachers	201
5.8.1.1	Letter-graded lessons.....	201
5.8.1.2	Statement-graded lessons.....	202
5.8.2	Teacher educators' final comments on student teachers' performance...	203
5.8.2.1	A very good lesson.....	203
5.8.2.2	A good lesson.....	203
5.8.3	Teacher educators' areas of focus in lesson observation.....	204
5.8.3.1	Student teachers had good knowledge of subject matter.....	205
5.8.3.2	Student teachers had good teaching skills	205
5.9	COMMENTS ON FINDINGS FROM DOCUMENT ANALYSIS AND INTERVIEWS	206
5.9.1	Student teachers' final grades	206

5.9.2	Major areas of focus in lesson observation	206
5.9.3	Teacher educators' final comments	207
5.10	FINAL ANALYSIS OF THE MAIN FINDINGS OF THE STUDY	208
5.10.1	The final analysis of the main question.....	208
5.10.1.1	Training of student teachers	209
5.10.1.2	Implementing teaching practice.....	210
5.10.1.3	Establishing the outcome of teaching practice	212
5.10.2	The role of supervising teachers in teaching practice.....	213
5.10.3	Challenges of teaching practice conducted by the University of Zambia.	214
5.11	FINAL REMARKS.....	215
5.12	SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER.....	216
CHAPTER 6 CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS.....		218
6.1	INTRODUCTION	218
6.2	SUMMARY OF THE MAIN FINDINGS.....	219
6.2.1	Participants' opinions about their experiences of teaching practice	219
6.2.2	The role of supervising teachers in teaching practice.....	220
6.2.3	Challenges faced in conducting teaching practice in schools.....	221
6.2.4	Improving the implementation of teaching practice	221
6.3	COMMENTS ON THE SUITABILITY OF THE THIRD GENERATION ACTIVITY THEORY	222
6.4	CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY.....	224
6.4.1	How the University of Zambia can implement teaching practice Effectively..	224
6.4.2	Provision of a platform to the 'voiceless' student teachers	229
6.4.3	Generation of information to the existing literature	229
6.5	LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY	229
6.6	RECOMMENDATIONS	231
6.6.1	Effective training and adequate support for student teachers.....	231
6.6.2	Collaboration with schools should be enhanced.....	231
6.6.3	Evaluation of teaching practice should be holistic	231
6.7	SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH	232
6.8	CONCLUSION TO THE CHAPTER	233
REFERENCES.....		235

APPENDICES.....	271
Appendix A: Proof of registration.....	271
Appendix B: Ethics approval.....	272
Appendix C: Request for permission to conduct research in schools.....	274
Appendix D: Permission to conduct research in schools.....	276
Appendix E: Request for permission to conduct research at the University of Zambia	277
Appendix F: Permission to conduct research at the University of Zambia.....	279
Appendix G: Semi-structured Interview Schedule for Teacher Educators	280
Appendix H: Semi-structured Interview Schedule for Supervising Teachers.....	282
Appendix I: Focus Group Interview Questions for Student Teachers	284
Appendix J: Teacher Educators' Lesson Evaluation Form	286
Appendix K: Questions for Document Analysis	288
Appendix L: Request for teacher educators to participate in individual semi- structured interview	289
Appendix M: Request for supervising teachers to participate in individual semi- structured interview	291
Appendix N: Request for student teachers to participate in focus group interview	293
Appendix O: Consent form for teacher educators	295
Appendix P: Consent form for supervising teachers	296
Appendix Q: Consent form for student teachers	297
Appendix R: A teacher educator's final comment on a lesson evaluation form (TEF8).	298
Appendix S: A teacher educator's final comment on a lesson evaluation form (TEF18)	299
Appendix T: An example of an interview script for a teacher educator.....	300

LIST OF FIGURES AND TABLES

Figures

Figure 3.1	First generation activity theory.....	79
Figure 3.2	Second generation activity theory.....	81
Figure 3.3	Two interacting activity systems as a minimal model for the third- generation activity theory.....	82
Figure 3.4	Teaching practice as an interactive activity.....	96
Figure 3.5	Two interacting activity systems involved in the implementation of Teaching practice.....	103
Figure 4.1	Steps in data analysis.....	129

Tables

Table 2.1	Organisation of teaching practice in selected countries	38
Table 2.2	Enrolments in teacher training institutions from 1968 to 1975.....	44
Table 4.1	Two supervising teachers' conceptualisation of teaching practice..	132
Table 5.1	Demographic profiles of teacher educators.....	150
Table 5.2	Demographic profiles of supervising teachers.....	150
Table 5.3	Demographic profiles of student teachers.....	152
Table 5.4	Summary of symbols used to indicate sources of data.....	153
Table 5.5	Student teachers' lesson observation grades.....	202
Table 5.6	Teacher educators' areas of focus in lesson observation.....	204

ABBREVIATIONS

FIBATTA:	Field Based Teacher Training Approach
ITE:	Initial Teacher Education
MoE:	Ministry of Education
MoGE:	Ministry of General Education
MoESVTEE:	Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education
UK:	United Kingdom
UNZA:	University of Zambia
USA:	United States of America
ZATEC:	Zambia Teacher Education Course
ZATERP:	Zambia Education Reform Programme
ZECF:	Zambia Education Curriculum Framework

CHAPTER 1

ORIENTATION

1.1. INTRODUCTION

For more than 50 years, scientists and academics throughout the world have studied and debated the “process of becoming a teacher” (Martinez, 2008:36; Caires, Almeida & Vieira, 2012:163; Mason, 2013:559). One of the most important parts of this process is what is referred to as teaching practice, and more popularly known as the “practicum” (Goh & Mathews, 2011:92; Ramanaidu, Wellington, Chew & Hassan, 2014:35). In Zambia, teaching practice is now more commonly referred to as ‘school teaching experience’.

According to Endeley (2014:147), the idea of teaching practice is entrenched in “the drive towards the education and training of competent and professional teachers” and should therefore “be seen as the central part of teacher education courses”. It is a key component of any teacher training programme (Ogonor & Badmus, 2006:1; Leshem & Bar-Hama, 2008:257; Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education (MoESVTEE), 2012:49; Torrez & Krebs, 2012:485; Allen & Wright, 2014:137; Endeley, 2014:147; Hamaidi, Al-Shara, Arouri & Awwad, 2014:191; Muyengwa & Bukaliya, 2015:53). This is why the processes of school teaching practice, together with the contribution they make towards the learning of pre-service teachers, have attracted the interest of researchers, teacher educators and teachers (Lawson, Çakmak, Gündüz, & Busher, 2015:391). For this reason, understanding current issues is paramount for grounding research, shaping practice, and establishing a policy that is up-to-date and informed (Dooley, Dangel & Farran, 2011:298).

The value and multifariousness of teaching practice have generated a variety of interests and means aimed at investigating its different dimensions, actors and dynamics (Caires et al., 2012:163). Internationally, therefore, teaching practice is an issue that has been researched for some time. It is a combination of study and practice in that student teachers are expected to put into practice what they have learned in a real classroom situation (Ogonor & Badmus, 2006:1; Kiggundu & Nayimuli, 2009:347; Cohen, Hoz & Kaplan, 2013:341; Endeley, 2014:147). It entails

the practical use of teaching methods, teaching strategies, teaching principles, teaching techniques and practical training and practice of different activities of daily school life (Tuimur, Role & Makewa, 2012:n.p.; Manyasi, 2014:52).

In this thesis, the researcher proposes arguments about the general organisation of teaching practice by the University of Zambia in the city of Lusaka, Zambia. The arguments are based on his experience as a teacher trained at the University of Zambia. In addition, the researcher and as a lecturer has been participating in the monitoring and assessment of student teachers at the University of Zambia during teaching practice. As a result of his lengthy association with, and experience in the teaching profession, the researcher makes an attempt to narrow the knowledge gap that appears to stem from a paucity of research on teaching practice in Zambia.

For a long time, the pre-service teacher education programme has been faced with the challenge of blending theory with practice of the profession (Allen & Peach, 2007:23; Allen, Butler-Mader & Smith, 2010:742; Cheng, Cheng & Tang, 2010:91; Korthagen, 2010:407; Allen, 2011:742). It has been established that a gap exists between the theoretical and the practical knowledge of student teachers, and that this gap is noticeable when student teachers enter the actual classroom setting (Hascher, Cocard & Moser, 2004:626). Marais and Meier (2004:222) and Mpolomoka, Muyangwa, Banda, Dube, Mabenga, Kangwa and Muyoba (2016:52) also add that although university lecturers value teaching practice as a link between theory and practice, studies have shown that student teachers sometimes fail to relate what they have learned to classroom practice.

The concern about the theory-practice gap combined with a focus on increasing teacher quality to raise student achievement has resulted in greater governmental scrutiny of initial teacher education (ITE) (Grudnoff, 2011:223; Jones, Hobbs, Kenny, Campbell, Chittleborough, Gilbert, Herbert & Redman, 2016:109). In fact, much of the existing literature on teacher preparation focuses on the theory-practice divide and ways in which the divide can be ameliorated (Adoniou, 2013:47; Jones et al., 2016:109). The theory-practice divide is clearly noted during teaching practice. This is why the merit and indeed the relevance of university pre-service education programmes have long been contested (Allen, Ambrosetti & Turner, 2013:108).

The University of Zambia student teachers' performance during school teaching practice has been criticised. Masaiti and Manchishi (2011:319) report that student teachers were not well equipped with "skills and knowledge in lesson delivery". With such a revelation about the capacity of initial teacher education to produce effective teachers, the researcher's considered view is that a study of the efficacy of teaching practice from the teacher educators', supervising teachers' and student teachers' perspectives would contribute positively to the implementation of teaching practice at the University of Zambia. The "nature and impact of these experiences may be a crucial aspect supporting the efficacy of teacher preparatory programmes" (O'Brian, Stoner, Appel & House, 2007:264) in that "the potential benefits of thoughtfully constructed school experiences can be a very important component of teacher preparation" (McLoughlin & Maslak, 2003:267).

Although there has been considerable research done on student teaching practice, little attention has been given to its implementation (Tannehill & Goc-Karp, 1992:39). Thus, in assessing the efficacy of teaching practice, the researcher is particularly interested in the implementation of teaching practice in secondary schools by the University of Zambia. The Zambia Education Curriculum Framework outlines the main elements that impact on quality in teacher education in an abridged form as follows:

The quality of general and teacher education should be judged from three perspectives, namely the inputs to the system, what happens within the system and the outputs from the system (MoESVTEE, 2012:15).

The researcher is interested in the second perspective which focuses on the processes used to organise, control and deliver education and training. This is because this perspective has a direct link to teaching practice. The success of teaching practice appears to depend largely on these processes. Thus, in evaluating the efficacy of teaching practice at the University of Zambia, it is extremely important to examine factors that have a bearing on teaching practice. These factors are time, preparation of student teachers and the support given to them during teaching practice. It is the researcher's considered view that these three factors are very important in the planning and implementation of teaching practice.

Time is an important factor in teaching practice. One may talk about time for learning, time for peer teaching and time for the actual teaching practice at a secondary school. According to Dusto (2014:7), the more time that student teachers spend with quality practising teachers, the better prepared they might be for a future role as a classroom teacher. Teaching practice is an equally important factor in the preparation of student teachers. It is essential to ensure opportunities for student teachers to have more practice in teaching before they qualify as professional teachers. This entails allocating more time to activities such as peer teaching. One important question that may be asked is: To what extent do teacher educators prepare student teachers to teach?

The support that the teacher educators and supervising teachers give to student teachers during training and teaching practice is also an important factor worth investigating. The support may be in terms of induction and mentorship, for example. Amedeker (2005:101) supports the induction and mentorship of student teachers when he says that the dimensions of pre-service preparation of teachers include the nature and extent of guidance given. Furthermore, a close examination of the link between schools where student teachers do their teaching practice and the University of Zambia needs to be done.

Research in ITE has highlighted the importance of teaching practice. Smith and Lev-Ari (2005:291) explain that teaching practice is important because it acts “as a link between theory and practice in the learning of teaching and provides the context in which student teachers develop a personal teaching competence”. However, systematic reviews of work in the field suggest a “lack of detailed examination of the practices that are most effective in supporting student teachers’ learning” (Sorensen, 2014:128). This observation is important as it reinforces the need to do more research into the conduct and nature of teaching practice particularly in countries where there has been no tangible research on secondary school teaching practice (Mtika, 2008:1). This situation is similar to that of Zambia, where research on secondary school teaching practice is limited.

Various studies have acknowledged the importance of teaching practice in teacher education programmes (Ogonor & Badmus, 2006:1; Gujjar, Naoreen, Saifi & Bajwa, 2010:339; Jusoh, 2012:867; Endeley, 2014:147). This is why it occupies an

important place in the teacher education programme. According to Cohen et al. (2013:354), “the rationale for teaching practice presents the perceived objectives of the field experience, its conceptualised relationship with the teacher education programmes, and its potential benefits for all participants in that experience (e.g. pre-service teachers, mentor-teachers, and university supervisors)”. Gujjar et al. (2010:339), Tuimur et al. (2012:n.p), Conroy, Hulme and Menter (2013:559), Endeley (2014:147) and Nguyen (2015:170) describe this as a “culminating experience in teacher preparation”.

Having provided a general overview of the meaning of teaching practice and its value in teacher training, the next section gives an account of the researcher’s personal experiences of teaching practice, the context and justification for the current study.

1.2 PERSONAL EXPERIENCE, CONTEXT AND JUSTIFICATION FOR THE STUDY

1.2.1 Personal experience

The researcher’s interest in investigating the teaching practice that is conducted by the University of Zambia emanates from his earlier work experience as a secondary school teacher and later as a teacher educator. The researcher has developed an interest in the training of teachers and how they, in turn, apply the theory learned at a university in practice in a secondary school classroom.

The researcher learned about the evaluation of teaching practice when he was training to become a teacher. Sedumedi and Mundalamo (2012:S75) explain that one of the methods or approaches generally used to assess pre-service teachers is practical experience or practice. Practical experience requires a student teacher to spend time in a given school observing how lessons are conducted and then finally becoming engaged in the actual teaching. The researcher trained as a secondary school teacher at the University of Zambia. As a student teacher then, the researcher participated in teaching practice at Lubuto secondary school in the Copperbelt Province of Zambia. He reported at the school where he did the teaching practice a week after writing end-of-year examinations. Results for these examinations were only released after the teaching practice period.

While on teaching practice, the researcher was mentored by two supervising teachers who specialised in each of his teaching subjects, namely English Language and Geography. The first week was spent orienting the researcher in the various aspects of the school, which among other things included the location of classrooms, departmental offices, school rules, reporting time, and co-curricular activities available at the school.

In the second week, the researcher observed some lessons taught by supervising teachers before he too started teaching. Mid-way through the teaching practice period, two teacher educators from the University of Zambia visited the school and observed the then student teacher's lessons, now the researcher, while the supervising teachers did the same during the last two weeks of the teaching practice. At the end of each of the lessons in which the researcher was observed, both the teacher educators and the supervising teachers shared their observations with the researcher about the way he had taught the lesson. Their observations focused mainly on the strengths and weaknesses of the lessons. Their final task consisted of making suggestions for lesson improvement and adding words of encouragement.

After qualifying as a teacher, the researcher started his teaching career in a mission school. The researcher was assigned to teach junior grades, namely grades eight and nine, for one year. Thereafter, he was allowed to teach senior grades – grades 10 to 12 – as well. Four years later, the University of Zambia started involving him in monitoring and assessing its student teachers who came to his school for teaching practice. Later, when the researcher joined the University of Zambia as a lecturer, he continued to participate in this exercise but in the role of a teacher educator.

As a former teacher and now a lecturer, the researcher has often wondered why management issues surrounding teaching practice are not prioritised at the University of Zambia. The implementation of teaching practice does not appear to be conducted systematically. For example, there have been reports of student teachers experiencing some difficulty in finding a school where they can do their teaching practice. Some school administrators have reportedly been reluctant to admit student teachers to do their teaching practice in their schools. A study of this nature may uncover reasons why some school administrators are behaving in this way.

In the preceding section, the personal experience of the researcher in relation to teaching practice has been presented. The next section presents the context of the study.

1.2.2 Context of the study

The implementation of teaching practice at the University of Zambia is the context of the present study. Teaching practice is also known as “practice teaching, student teaching, field studies, infield experience, school based experience, internship, practical experience or ‘the prac’ ” (Wasley, 2002:18; Goh & Mathews, 2011:92; Komba & Kira, 2013:158). It has been a common practice for student teachers to gain professional knowledge during their university studies, after which they are expected to combine this with coursework and put that knowledge into practice (Lind, 2004:1), in a school setting.

Teaching practice is a mandatory component of the Bachelor of Arts with Education and Bachelor of Science Education programmes offered by the University of Zambia. It is an essential and valued part of the pre-service and in-service teacher education programme. Due to its significance in the training of teachers, it is offered to all student teachers before they qualify to be teachers. It is conducted over a six-week period in a school setting. The key players in teaching practice include teacher educators, supervising teachers and the student teachers themselves. In this regard, to fully establish the efficacy of teaching practice conducted by the University of Zambia, the perspectives of these key players will be determined.

The study was conducted in Zambia, a landlocked country located south of the equator in Southern Africa. Formerly known as Northern Rhodesia, Zambia derives its name from the Zambezi River. The source of the Zambezi River is in the Kaleni Hills of North-Western Province. Zambia got her political independence from Britain on 24 October 1964. The capital city is Lusaka and it is the city where the study was conducted.

In 2010, the population of Zambia was reported to be 13 092 666 with a growth rate of 2.8% per year (Central Statistical Office, 2012:5). The population comprises approximately 72 ethnic groups. English is the official language of Zambia. It is used for both official business and teaching purposes in schools in all ten provinces. In

2012, the Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and early Education (MoESVTEE) introduced the use of familiar local languages in grades one to four as official languages of instruction in schools. This was in response to some growing research evidence that indicates that children learn more easily and successfully through mother tongue language (MoESVTEE, 2012:18).

For some time now, Zambia's formal education system has used a 7 – 5 – 4 structure. The education system requires a pupil to undergo seven years of primary education. The first four years are for lower primary while the last three years are for upper primary education. Secondary education has a duration of five years broken down as follows: two years of junior and three years senior secondary. The University of Zambia offers Bachelor of Arts and Bachelor of Science degree programmes with a teaching practice component lasting four years. According to the Revised Sixth National Development Plan document, there are 17 universities in Zambia, of which 3 are public (Ministry of Finance, 2014:100). The University of Zambia is one of the public universities. At the University of Zambia, student teachers are allowed to train in either one or two arts or science-based subjects, which they later teach when they qualify as teachers.

However, in the recent past, the Government made pronouncements that Zambia's education system be organised around the following units: basic schools which will be offering grades one to nine and high schools which will cater for grades 10 to 12. This development resulted in a formal education system with a 9 – 3 – 4 structure, comprising nine years of basic education, three years of high school education (grades 10 to 12) and 4 years of tertiary education at most universities (i.e. for those intending to acquire a secondary school teaching qualification). Pupils have been subjected to nationally-set examinations at grades 7, 9 and 12 to move to the next education level. They are admitted to the next level on the basis of their performance. Due to an inadequate number of school places, selection has been highly competitive, forcing many pupils to either repeat or drop out of school at grades seven and nine.

The preceding paragraphs have provided general information on the context of the study. Apart from describing the focus of the study and study sites, information on the educational background of pupils who later train as secondary school teachers at

the University of Zambia has been provided. The educational background of the pupils has been highlighted as it is pertinent to a study of this nature, which is investigating the efficacy of teaching practice at the University of Zambia.

Having presented the context of the study, the researcher discusses the justification for the study in the section that follows.

1.2.3 Justification for the study

As a lecturer, the researcher values the importance of teaching practice. This is because the quality of education may depend largely on the processes to which student teachers are subjected during their training. According to Craig, Kraft and Du Plessis (1998:xi), teacher education programmes can make a difference to student teachers' achievement depending on the type of education programme and support that is put in place. In addition, Craig et al (1998) cite factors such as "the years of teacher training (initial and in-service), the teacher's verbal fluency, subject matter knowledge, having books and materials and knowing how to use them, teacher expectation of pupils' performance, time spent on classroom preparation and frequent monitoring of pupils' progress" as being important in that they impact positively on the quality of teachers' performance and consequently pupils' performance.

In line with this reasoning, issues surrounding the efficacy of teaching practice at the University of Zambia can best be understood from the experiences of the main players involved in it. The main players in the process of teaching practice are teacher educators, supervising teachers and student teachers. It is, therefore, important to investigate the efficacy of teaching practice at the University of Zambia from the experiences of these main players. It is hoped that the study shall contribute to the international debate about the balance between theory and practice and in particular, the role played by the teaching practice offices in helping pre-service teachers to end an apparent gap between theory and practice (Allen & Peach, 2007:23).

The study also aims to voice pre-service teachers' concerns and respond to the global criticism that their voices are hardly ever used to establish the extent to which their teacher education programme realises its goals (Korthagen, Loughran &

Russell, 2006:20). More often than not, studies about teaching practice have tended to ignore the experiences that student teachers obtain from teaching practice mainly because academics and researchers alike consider them inexperienced and consequently unable to contribute meaningfully. Hoyt and Pallett (1999:1), for example, report that authorities agree that student teachers are not experienced to provide valid reports on matters relating to teaching effectiveness.

Cashin (1989:n.p.) lists 26 specific considerations that he regards as relevant to instructional effectiveness. Tertiary students are unqualified to provide valid observations for 11 of these, which include an array of factors related to subject matter mastery, course design, and curriculum development. However, through the assessment of student teachers' opinions about their experiences of teaching practice, it is expected that a reasoned conclusion shall be made about the perceived gap between theory and practice and ways will be suggested to address the issues that will be highlighted by student teachers.

It is a well-known fact that a large body of knowledge exists on teacher education, and in particular on teaching practice. According to Mtika (2008:16), there have been many research studies the world over focusing on fundamental issues of student teachers, beginning teachers and experienced teachers. However, Mtika (2008:16) observes that the literature directly addressing most of the fundamental issues of the developing world is scanty. Ong'ondo and Jwan (2009:522) also support the assertion that there is a paucity of research in teaching practice when they report that most researchers and writers had consistently made suggestions that further research on different aspects of teaching practice should be conducted. It is seemingly true that there is a paucity of research on this subject in Zambia and in particular at the University of Zambia. A study of this nature, therefore, may both provide more insight into and contribute to the growth of knowledge in this subject area in the country. In short, the results of the study could be a reference for future practitioners while at the same time the knowledge gained may help teacher educators to improve the preparation of future teachers (Mtika, 2008:10).

The study may also help to provide detailed information about how the University of Zambia organises teaching practice. Such information may, in turn, inform practice. This is because the study interacts with the main players in teaching practice,

namely teacher educators, supervising teachers and student teachers, who should be able to provide valuable information. The information obtained, therefore, may be useful to the practitioners.

The researcher has noted that there is hardly any specific literature on the conduct of teaching practice at the University of Zambia. For example, there is an apparent lack of consolidated guidelines on how supervision of student teachers should be conducted. In the absence of teaching practice guidelines for secondary schools, a study of this nature may culminate in the production of a manual that could prescribe guidelines or provide insights into how teaching practice should be conducted in secondary schools in Zambia. Consequently, this research could contribute to the improvement of quality in teaching practice.

The scope of this study is broad as it focuses not only on the three main categories of informants, namely teacher educators, supervising teachers and student teachers, but also interrogates various aspects of teaching practice such as teacher educators' lesson demonstrations, peer teaching, observation lessons organised by supervising teachers, and also on the actual teaching practice. In this way, this study will be more comprehensive and should consequently contribute significantly to the understanding of the efficacy of teaching practice at the University of Zambia.

The success of the education system depends to a great extent on how well teaching practice is organised as it is through this process that future teachers are eventually produced. This study, therefore, highlights the challenges inherent in the conduct of teaching practice by the University of Zambia. The significance of this study emerges from the importance of the teaching practice experience itself, its role in teacher preparation programmes that aim to develop the educational competencies of student teachers, and its ability to diagnose the challenges faced by student teachers during the practice (Hamaidi et al., 2014:195). In order to understand and appreciate the study, the next section provides a brief overview of teaching practice.

1.3 A BRIEF OVERVIEW OF TEACHING PRACTICE

Both teacher educators and supervising teachers play a critical role in preparing and nurturing a student teacher. The University of Zambia is one of the three public

universities involved in the training of secondary school teachers. Before a student teacher qualifies as a teacher, he or she is required to participate in teaching practice in schools. Teaching practice provides an opportunity for student teachers to experience teaching in a real learning environment (Marais & Meier, 2004:222).

Teaching practice is deemed to be an important part of teacher preparation because it has a direct bearing on teacher quality. Samuel (2009:757) argues that the improvement of the quality of education in schools is closely connected with producing quality teachers for and within the schooling system. Managing the teaching practice experience to achieve quality teacher education is an important aspect of ITE. Therefore, a well-designed teaching practice programme is needed to ensure that teacher training institutions produce high quality teachers. It is also important to constantly evaluate teaching practice to enhance the quality of teachers that teacher training institutions produce.

Evaluation is a fundamental aspect of the teacher education programme in general and of student teaching in particular. In both cases, evaluation contributes to the professional development of future teachers. The main objective of the evaluation is to bring prospective teachers' teaching skills and personality into congruence with the effective teacher behaviours detailed in the literature and endorsed by teacher educators (Alhwiti, 2007:36). To evaluate student teaching more or less implies assessing the ability of a student teacher to teach. The evaluators of student teachers' teaching practice are teacher educators and sometimes supervising teachers who are based in schools where teaching practice is taking place.

Teaching practice experiences have been routinely criticised. Research conducted in Hong Kong indicates that student teachers' experience is overly narrow. Their experience is chiefly confined to classroom teaching and they do not have much involvement in the wider school life (Tang, 2003:485). Based on this observation, it is important to conduct research into how teachers are prepared and how teaching practice is implemented (both inside and outside the classroom), in particular at the University of Zambia.

As mentioned earlier in the introduction, the merit and indeed the relevance of university pre-service teacher education programmes have long been contested

(Allen et al., 2013:108). This is because it has been established that there is a discrepancy between theory and practice of the profession (Grudnoff, 2011:223). In view of this, several questions about managing teaching practice effectively as well as measuring its effectiveness systematically continually arise (Darling-Hammond, 2006:129). The effectiveness of the teaching practice that is conducted by the University of Zambia has not been determined. Thus, this study investigates the effectiveness of the teaching practice programme of this institution. The next three sections describe the problem statement, research questions, the aim and objectives of the study.

1.4 THE PROBLEM STATEMENT

According to Alhwiti (2007:4), an important strategy for evaluating a teacher education programme is to measure the effectiveness of the performance of its graduates in real settings – in the classroom and in the school. Luneta (2011:17) reveals that there is a body of empirical evidence that suggests that the extent and quality of teacher education matters for teachers' effectiveness. This implies that student teaching programmes should be carefully planned so that they produce qualified and competent teachers. As it will be demonstrated in Chapter 2, related literature provides valuable insight into the student teaching experience, but leaves plenty of room for further research.

For a long time now, secondary schools that host student teachers from the University of Zambia for their teaching practice have raised concern about the students' ability to use instructional methods effectively in a classroom situation. According to a study conducted by Masaiti and Manchishi (2011:321), student teachers had not received adequate skills and knowledge in lesson delivery. However, the study does not specifically state what these inadequacies in instructional methodology are. A widely established fact is that there is a discrepancy between the knowledge and skills taught in teacher education programmes and the requirements of the workplace (Meijer, De Graaf & Meirink, 2011:115).

In a recent study aimed at establishing the effectiveness of a university teacher education curriculum in relation to secondary school teacher performance in Uganda, Otaala, Maani and Bakaira (2013:102) reveal that generally, university

lecturers and students, and secondary school teachers indicated their satisfaction with the academic content covered at the university and that teacher-centred methods were commonly used because the same methods had been used to teach them by lecturers at a university. As opposed to Uganda's teaching approach, the Government of the Republic of Zambia through the MoESVTEE has clearly articulated its policy on teaching methods. It emphasises the learner-centred approach in the teaching and learning process (MoESVTEE, 2012:57) instead of the teacher-centred approach.

Both instructional and evaluation methods are critical elements of any teaching practice. In addition, numerous studies have emphasised the importance of teaching practice. However, few studies have been conducted to investigate the perspective of the student teachers and the supervising teachers (O'Brian et al., 2007:264). It is, therefore, important to conduct research into teaching practice that aims at gathering views from the main stakeholders, namely the teacher educators, supervising teachers and student teachers.

As earlier pointed out (See section 1.1, page 3), although teaching practice has been the focus of considerable research efforts, little attention has been paid to its organisation and implementation (Tannehill & Goc-Karp, 1992:39). It appears that the conduct and supervision of teaching practice is an area that has received little attention in teacher training institutions. Moyo (1980:17) supports the idea of investigating the teaching practice programme in order to determine its contribution to teacher education in Zambia. Torrez and Krebs (2012:485) also explain that the overall context of a quality teaching experience, the characteristics of a successful teacher candidate and cooperating teacher, and the benefits to cooperating teachers are often understudied and therefore underrepresented in the extant literature. The qualitative approach to investigate teaching practice at the University of Zambia is likely to yield abundant and useful information for the benefit of practitioners, researchers and policy makers. In this regard, the effectiveness of teaching practice must be investigated in a more holistic manner. Educators have pointed out that the primary purpose of analysing an educational or training programme is to provide information for decisions about the programme (Alhwiti, 2007:41).

In light of the foregoing, the study sets out to investigate the efficacy of teaching practice at the University of Zambia by answering the following main question: **How effective is teaching practice conducted by the University of Zambia for the preparation of teachers to teach in secondary schools in Zambia?** In order to adequately address this question, the next section outlines the sub-questions to be investigated.

1.5 THE RESEARCH QUESTIONS

A critical part of an effective research study is the development of research questions (Yin, 2011:67). Mears (2009:78) recommends that research questions be “reduced to the smallest definable elements (that) target a discernible, specific issue and population”. Therefore, to assess the efficacy of teaching practice conducted by the University of Zambia through the experiences of teacher educators, supervising teachers and student teachers, the following sub-questions will help to adequately address the main question:

- a. What are teacher educators’ opinions about their experiences of teaching practice in Zambian secondary schools?
- b. What are supervising teachers’ opinions about their experiences of teaching practice in Zambian secondary schools?
- c. What are student teachers’ opinions about their experiences of teaching practice in Zambian secondary schools?
- d. What is the role of supervising teachers in teaching practice?
- e. What challenges does the University of Zambia face in conducting the teaching practice programme?
- f. What improvements can be made to the conduct of the teaching practice programme in secondary schools in Zambia?

The section that follows briefly outlines the research aim and the objectives of the study.

1.6 THE AIM AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

1.6.1 Research aim

The aim of this study was to determine the efficacy of the teaching practice programme of the University of Zambia, identify its challenges and propose improvements.

1.6.2 Research objectives

The research objectives of the study are:

- a. to determine **teacher educators'** opinions about their experiences of teaching practice in Zambian secondary schools;
- b. to determine **supervising teachers'** opinions about their experiences of teaching practice in Zambian secondary schools;
- c. to describe **student teachers'** opinions about their experiences of teaching practice in Zambian secondary schools;
- d. to determine the **supervising teachers'** role in teaching practice;
- e. to identify **challenges** that the University of Zambia faces in conducting the teaching practice programme, and
- f. to propose **ways** in which the teaching practice programme can be conducted effectively in secondary schools in Zambia.

1.7 THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES

The theoretical framework that informed the investigation of the efficacy of teaching practice at the University of Zambia is the activity theory. The activity theory is a product of Vygotsky and Leont'ev's work (Lee, 2003:393). Central to Vygotsky's thesis is the notion that the individual's interaction with objects in the world is mediated by cultural artefacts: signs, symbols and practical tools (Hardman, 2008:68). A framework based on the activity theory provided a conceptual and theoretical tool to organise an inquiry into understanding teacher educators, supervising teachers and student teachers' opinions about their experiences of teaching practice conducted by the University of Zambia.

According to Clark, Byrnes and Sudweeks (2015:171), the context and learning environment, together with those involved in teacher preparation programmes, has

an important role to play in as far as student teachers' learning experiences are concerned. Mtika (2008:1) explains that an activity theory framework takes into account a number of aspects. Some of these aspects include subjects, the mission of their activity, and the tools used to perform an activity. Further, it also focuses on contextual factors that have a bearing on the development of subjects in the process of learning an activity such as teaching practice. All of the aspects of the activity theory are found in teaching practice as an activity of educational significance. A detailed description of how this theoretical framework fits into this study is presented in Chapter 3.

A synopsis has been provided of the theoretical perspectives underpinning this study, and the next section addresses the methodological issues for the study.

1.8 METHODOLOGICAL ISSUES

To investigate the efficacy of teaching practice at the University of Zambia, a qualitative research design was employed. Based on the description of teaching practice as a period of intense search and exploration of oneself, others and the new scenarios, it is believed that it is most relevant to analyse the lived experiences of those who are learning to teach. This involves not only the scientific, procedural and pedagogical components of this process but also the individual as a whole (Caires et al., 2012:166). The main players in teaching practice, namely teacher educators, supervising teachers and student teachers were, therefore, the main target population in this study.

The teaching practice that is conducted by the University of Zambia lasts a mere six weeks and most schools conduct their teaching between 07:00 and 13:00 from Monday to Friday. This is a very short period for research considering the fact that qualitative research presupposes an in-depth study of purposively sampled participants in the study. However, it must be emphasised that the objective of this kind of study was not to generalise the results but to have "a deeper understanding of experience from the perspectives of the participants selected for the study" (Maykut & Morehouse, 1994:40; Henn, Weinstein & Foard, 2006:156). As such the study population is likely to be small. This is supported by Ary, Jacobs, Razavieh and Sorensen (2010:429) who explain "that because of the depth and extent of

information sought in qualitative studies, purposive samples are typically small". Qualitative research is fundamentally interpretive (Rossman & Rallis, 2012:9). It is "a form of interpretive inquiry in which researchers make an interpretation of what they see, hear and understand" (Creswell, 2009:176).

The population of the study consisted of all the teacher educators at the University of Zambia, supervising teachers in secondary schools and student teachers who had just participated in teaching practice in Lusaka. To manage many secondary schools in an effective manner, Lusaka is divided into 8 zones. It is from these zones that the sample for the study was drawn. Details of the sample are given in Chapter 4.

Data collection took place immediately after the teaching practice. The study employed focus group discussions, interviews and document analysis. Emerging themes were coded and analysed while the data collected through document analysis were described. Finally, methodological issues are addressed in detail in Chapter 4. Similarly, ethical issues such as confidentiality and voluntarism are dealt with in the same chapter. The next section discusses the delimitation and limitation of the study.

1.9 DELIMITATION OF THE STUDY

The study addressed the effectiveness of teaching practice conducted by the University of Zambia from the perspectives of teacher educators, supervising teachers and student teachers. The main respondents were teacher educators and student teachers from the University of Zambia while supervising teachers were from secondary schools. The geographical location of the research site from which the participants were drawn was the city of Lusaka.

In an academic study such as this one, familiar, unfamiliar and even new terms may be used. To aid comprehension of the discussion, it is important that working definitions specific to the study are provided. In light of this, the next section provides a brief explanation of the terms that are pertinent to this study after which a summary of the chapter is given.

1.10 DEFINITION OF TERMS

- *Efficacy*: In this study, efficacy is used to refer to the effectiveness of teaching practice conducted by the University of Zambia in Zambian secondary schools, which is an important part of teaching education.
- *Student teacher*: is a university student who is undergoing training to become a teacher and is participating or has just participated in teaching practice during the period of the research study.
- *Supervising teacher*: refers to a qualified school teacher who guides, assists and supervises student teachers on teaching practice. A supervising teacher is also referred to as a cooperating teacher and sometimes as a mentor-teacher in some of the literature reviewed so far.
- *Teacher educator*: refers to a university-based teacher or lecturer who teaches methodology in a subject or subjects that student teachers who undergo teaching practice, will be teaching.
- *Teaching practice*: refers to the various experiences that student teachers are exposed to when they work in classrooms and schools before they can qualify as teachers. It is a time when student teachers are expected to relate the course content they have learned at a university to classroom practice.
- *Teaching practice experiences*: These are views that individuals have about the efficacy of teaching practice in Zambian secondary schools as a result of their involvement in teaching practice conducted by the University of Zambia.
- *Triad*: is a collective term referring to three key players in teaching practice, namely teacher educators or lecturers from the University of Zambia, supervising teachers in secondary schools and student teachers from the University of Zambia.

1.11 ORGANISATION OF THE THESIS

This study is divided into six chapters. Chapter 1 provides an introduction to the study. In this chapter, the following have been described namely: introduction, personal experience, the context and justification of the study. Other aspects discussed are an overview of teaching practice, the problem statement, research

questions, the aim and objectives of the study, and the theoretical perspectives. Furthermore, attention has been given to methodological issues, the motivation for the study, delimitation of the study, the definition of terms, the summary of the chapters and the conclusion.

A literature review pertinent to the study is presented in Chapter 2. The chapter reviews the literature relating to the conduct of teaching practice both locally and globally and in particular in Zambian studies. Examples of how teaching practice is implemented in selected countries are also discussed. In addition, the chapter identifies the gaps existing in the body of knowledge in teaching practice in relation to the current study.

Chapter 3 discusses the theoretical perspectives of the study. The study is informed by Vygotsky's activity theory with special reference to the third generation activity theory. In addition, the chapter provides a justification for the use of the third generation activity theory in this study and also explains how the current study is viewed through the activity theory.

Chapter 4 describes the methodology chosen for the study and the procedures used in the study. The main topics tackled in this chapter include the research design, the population, and selection of participants. In addition, issues of data collection, data analysis and interpretation are also dealt with. Thematic and content analysis methods were employed to analyse the data in this study. Justification is also provided for the choice of each of the research methods used in this study. Issues of trustworthiness and credibility for this study are also addressed. The issues discussed include measures taken to enhance the trustworthiness of the study as well as ethical considerations.

The findings and discussion of the study on the efficacy of teaching practice conducted by the University of Zambia are presented in Chapter 5. Thematic and content analysis methods were employed to analyse the data in this study. For this reason, the presentation of the findings is in line with the themes and subthemes that emerged. The discussion is supplemented by evidence from the interviews the researcher conducted with the participants, document analysis and from the literature reviewed in Chapter 2.

Finally, Chapter 6 presents the conclusions and recommendations based on the findings of the study. Specifically, Chapter 6 is used to present a summary of the key findings, conclusions, limitations and recommendations of the study. In addition, the relevance of the third generation activity theory to the study and suggestions for future research are also outlined.

1.12 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

This chapter has given an overview of the study. It has explicitly stated the value and place of teaching practice in teacher education. It has also dealt with the personal experiences of the researcher, the context and the justification of the study. As the world grapples with issues of quality in teacher education, the chapter has established the need to assess the efficacy of teaching practice under the auspices of the University of Zambia. An overview of teaching practice has also been presented in this chapter together with the problem statement. The research objectives and questions of the study which will guide the study have also been presented. The next chapter presents the literature review pertinent to this study.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 1 has provided an understanding of teaching practice, which is not only the focus of this study but a core component of teacher education as well because it gives the opportunity to student teachers to practise in a school what they have learned at a teacher training college or university. The theory-practice gap during the teaching practice has been acknowledged worldwide, leading to extensive research and debate among researchers and academics. Additionally, this researcher has articulated the rationale for this study, which is essentially to contribute to the reduction of the knowledge gap emanating from a paucity of research on teaching practice especially in Zambia. Finally, as noted in Chapter 1, this study is aimed at examining the implementation of teaching practice in secondary schools by the University of Zambia.

This chapter presents the literature related to the research problem. To inform and justify the research questions which are the focus of this research, the review of the literature is organised under several sections. To put the study in context, the main sections of the chapter include an overview of teacher education and teaching practice, the rationale for teaching practice, viewpoints of scholars on the importance of teaching practice, models of teaching practice and the implementation of teaching practice in selected countries including Zambia. The other sections are the role of supervising teachers in teaching practice, views of teacher educators, supervising teachers and student teachers about the effectiveness of teaching practice and the challenges facing the implementation of teaching practice. Finally, the identified gaps in the literature reviewed have been highlighted.

As stated earlier, the sections that follow will attempt to situate the study within the research literature in teacher education generally and in teaching practice in particular. In light of this, the next section presents the history of both teacher education and teaching practice. Teacher education and teaching practice are dealt with concurrently because they go hand in hand.

2.2 AN OVERVIEW OF TEACHER EDUCATION AND TEACHING PRACTICE

This section presents an overview of teacher education and teaching practice. It is divided into two parts. The first part provides an explanation of what teacher education and teaching practice are, while the second part presents a brief global history of teacher education and teaching practice.

2.2.1 Meaning of teacher education and teaching practice

According to Perraton (2010:4), the main aims of teacher education are to expand “student teachers’ knowledge and understanding of the subjects” they intend to teach and to acquire functional skills and proficiencies. Teacher education is aimed at imparting the knowledge and skills of teaching to student teachers. In the context of this study, the University of Zambia offers teacher education to both pre- and in-service teachers, collectively referred to as student teachers, to enable them to qualify to teach at either junior or senior secondary school or both.

It is only after student teachers have undergone training offered through teacher education that they qualify to do teaching practice in schools. As reported in Chapter 1, teaching practice is a combination of learning and work which demands that student teachers learn how to teach by applying what they have learned in a classroom situation (Kiggundu & Nayimuli, 2009:347; Cohen et al., 2013:341; Gray, Wright & Pascoe, 2017:36). Therefore it is considered an important part in the training of teachers: it affords student teachers the opportunity to experience teaching and to manage pupils in a class (Leshem & Bar-Hama, 2008:257).

Hascher et al. (2004:626) also support the involvement of student teachers in teaching practice when they contend that it improves the instructional proficiencies of student teachers. This simply implies that during teaching practice, student teachers are expected to integrate the theoretical knowledge they have learned at university with practical experience in schools. In short, teacher education can be said to be learning about how to teach (theory), while teaching practice is about going into the field, for example at a school, to put the theory into practice.

2.2.2 A global history of teacher education and teaching practice

The history of teacher preparation is seen as a continuing attempt at bridging the gap between ‘theory’ and ‘practice’ (The Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership [AITSL], 2013:6). It has been acknowledged that the advent of teacher education throughout the world – that eventually incorporated teaching practice as a critical component of teacher training – took place at different times. For example, some developed countries such as the United Kingdom (UK) and the United States of America (USA) implemented teacher education earlier than did the third world countries. Morris (1974:358) mentions that William Byngnam established Godshouse College, the first teacher education school in England, in 1439. According to Elligate (2007:1), teacher education had its origins in France in the mid-16th century and spread throughout Europe largely due to the efforts of St. John Baptiste de la Salle (1651-1719), Francke (1663-1727) and Pestalozzi (1746-1827). Elligate (2007:1) adds that the first formal curriculum was introduced in Germany in the 18th century.

Teacher education was introduced in Europe before it was introduced in the USA, and for most of the history of the USA, from the American Revolution until well into the 1950s and 1960s, teacher preparation was a haphazard affair (Fraser, 2007:3). Labaree (2008:290) explains that the organisation of teacher education experienced rapid growth in the early twentieth century, for example from normal school through to regional state university level. It was not until the 1970s that teacher education became part of the university curriculum and its main focus was on training teachers mainly in liberal arts education.

Elligate (2007:1) reports that teacher education programmes in Australia began during the 1850s. Elligate (2007:45) also reveals that teaching practice evolved from the “apprenticeship system” of teacher training. Under this system, more experienced teachers supervised trainee teachers. Often such supervising teachers were members of the clergy or of religious orders, parents or those with some formal qualifications or experience in teacher education. The state, denominational and independent education bodies continued to provide teacher training until the late 1940s when, following World War 2, teaching practice essentially came under the jurisdiction of colleges and universities.

For most developing countries, including Zambia, teacher education came much later. For example, among the Latin American countries, Chile was the first to establish institutions responsible for teacher education in 1842 (Avalos, 2007:10). For most of the African continent, some form of teacher education was experienced with the coming of missionaries as well as during colonial occupation. Mwanakatwe (2013:291) reports that the early missionaries introduced teacher training in Zambia (in the then Northern Rhodesia). As for Malaysia in Asia, it was not until 1922 that the first teacher education programmes were established (Goh & Blake, 2015:471).

From the foregoing, it is evident that teacher education started many years ago. Similarly, teaching practice as part of teacher education has been in existence for many years. Teaching practice has become an important function of teacher education, mainly because it is the source of professional competencies in teacher education (Allen et al., 2010:616). According to the AITSL (2013:6), preparing a teacher has translated into student teachers spending more time on training as well as on teaching practice in schools to overcome the perceived gap between theory and practice. The increase in the duration of training and practice is aimed at enhancing student teachers' knowledge and skills of teaching in readiness for the world of work.

This trend has affected the way initial teacher training is conducted. For example, AITSL reports that in England schools have explicitly been placed at the centre of initial teacher education, including in some of the models where universities were not involved at all. In the UK, a larger part of teacher education takes place in schools (Smith & Lev-Ari, 2005:290). In Australia, AITSL (2013:6) reports that in order to increase the quality of teachers as well as teaching practice experiences, government finances specialised teacher training institutions. As for the USA, the body responsible for accrediting teachers started to prioritise teaching practice. A reasonably successful initiative in addressing problems facing teaching practice was the establishment of Professional Development Schools (PDS) that served as settings for internships for student teachers (Hendrikse, 2013:22).

Having presented the brief history of teacher education and teaching practice drawn mainly from the experiences of the developed world such as the USA and UK, the

next section examines the meaning of teaching practice and the scholars' viewpoints on its importance. It also describes the rationale and objectives of teaching practice.

2.3 TEACHING PRACTICE

As earlier noted in Chapter 1, teaching practice is aimed at contributing to the production of competent and qualified teachers. It is, therefore, a key component of a teacher training programme (Elligate, 2007:27; Endeley, 2014:147). Smith and Lev-Ari (2005:289) affirm that teaching practice has always operated side by side with teacher education. For example, when most teachers were educated in a form of apprenticeship, teacher trainees used to study experienced teachers before they were allowed to do teaching practice (Smith & Lev-Ari, 2005:289). The next two sections address the meaning of teaching practice and viewpoints of scholars on its importance. This is followed by the rationale and objectives of teaching practice.

2.3.1 Meaning of teaching practice

Teaching practice is a period when student teachers implement in the classroom what they have learned at a teacher training institution (Atputhasamy, 2005:1; Beeth & Adadan, 2006:103; Ogonor & Badmus, 2006:1; Oluwatayo & Adebule, 2012:109; Rosemary, Ngwarai & Ngara, 2013:126; Owusu & Brown, 2014:25). It is essentially conducted in a school classroom environment. Baek and Ham (2009:272) add that teaching practice is a programme that student teachers engage in to sharpen their teaching skills in class under the supervision of a qualified teacher. Dusto (2014:2) gives a comprehensive account of the activities that a student teacher undertakes during teaching practice when he explains that:

Teaching practice involves observation and practice teaching. Student teachers are allowed to practise what they have learnt such as lesson planning and teaching and are assessed by supervising teachers and teacher educators.

According to Hendrikse (2013:1), in traditional university-based teacher education preparation programmes, the culmination of the theoretical university course work is the placement of the future teacher in a school classroom to practise teaching. Teaching practice is known by a multitude of terms (Elligate, 2007:37). These terms include field experience, practice teaching, professional experience, student

teaching, internship, school-based experience and practicum. However, in this study, 'teaching practice' is the preferred term.

No matter the form the teaching practice in pre-service teacher education programmes takes, it still remains an exercise with a lasting effect on student teachers in that it helps them to understand what teaching is all about (Cohen et al., 2013:345). It occupies a key position in pre-service teacher education programmes because it affords student teachers the opportunity to put what they have learned (theory) during training into practice in class (Hamaidi et al., 2014:191).

When students are being trained as teachers in a higher institution of learning such as the University of Zambia, they are taught methods of teaching. Ong'ondo and Jwan (2009:515) explain that schools or colleges are often used as 'practice sites' where student teachers can interact with the actual learners as part of their practical engagements. This is the programme commonly referred to as teaching practice or practicum. The attachment of a student teacher to an institution is largely determined by the level he or she is being trained to teach. For example, there are colleges of education that specifically train teachers to teach at a primary school level while other higher teacher training institutions train teachers who teach at a secondary school level. However, some teacher training institutions train both primary and secondary school teachers.

Though different countries use different teaching practice systems, they all share the similar overall goal of ensuring that student teachers attain certain levels of competencies in teaching (Yan & He, 2010:57). This view is shared by Elligate (2007:37), who explains that one of the overall goals of initial teacher education is to prepare teachers to be competent when they are teaching in class. In summary, teaching practice is a period during which a student teacher is given an opportunity to teach pupils in a school. During teaching practice, a student teacher is expected to translate the theory learned during training into practice with the help and support of a teacher educator and supervising teachers.

Having discussed the meaning of teaching practice, the study presents viewpoints of selected scholars on the importance of teaching practice in the next section.

2.3.2 Viewpoints of scholars on the importance of teaching practice

Student teachers are exposed to a number of experiences while they are doing their teaching practice in schools (Marais & Meier, 2004:221). In this regard, engaging student teachers in teaching practice has been recognised as an indispensable link between what is learned at the university and taught in schools (Atputhasamy, 2005:1). It is becoming common in many countries for universities and schools to work together in the preparation of teachers. For example, in the USA and Canada, student teachers in their first year are required to observe qualified teachers in schools. In later years of their training, student teachers are required to spend more time on teaching practice in schools with some professional responsibilities (Graham, 2006:1119). It is acknowledged that student teachers get involved in various activities such as observing experienced teachers' lessons and doing administrative work to prepare themselves adequately for the teaching profession (Koc, 2011:1983).

Many scholars have clearly articulated the importance of teaching practice. The scholars include Caires and Almeida (2005), Fraser, Killen and Nieman (2005), Allen and Peach (2007), Baek and Ham (2009), Tuli and File (2009), Oluwatayo and Adebule (2012), and Manyasi (2014). Tuli and File (2009:40) explain that teaching practice is a critical and appropriate component of the pre-service teacher education programme because it helps the teacher to learn skills that can be improved upon during the implementation of teaching practice in school. In addition, Allen and Peach (2007:26) explain that teaching practice is seen as a gateway that is embedded in the entire training programme for the purpose of ascertaining competencies that student teachers have attained before they can move to the next level of their studies.

Teaching practice is an important component of any curriculum studies in teacher education and has been recognised as the most important experience in the preparation of teachers. Teacher educators have also echoed the importance of teaching practice to student teachers and have initiated new ways of training teachers and conducting teaching practice (Castaneda & Garson, 2005:161).

The preceding paragraphs have presented briefly the views that scholars have in relation to the value of teaching practice in teacher education programmes. Generally, the main view of the scholars is that teaching practice provides a great opportunity for student teachers to translate into practice the theory learned during training. In this regard, the value of teaching practice is based on the contribution that it makes to the preparation of teachers. To clarify and support the views held by different scholars on the value of teaching practice, the next section explains the rationale for teaching practice.

2.3.3 Rationale for teaching practice

Cohen et al. (2013:346) reviewed a total of 113 empirical studies that were conducted between 1996 and 2009. In this review, they identified four general rationales for teaching practice. They observed that each of these rationales emphasised a different facet or role of teaching practice. They further explained that the rationale for teaching practice presents the perceived objectives of the field experience, its conceptualised relationship with the teacher education programmes, and its potential benefits for all participants in that experience (student teachers and teacher educators). Below is a brief discussion of the four rationales for teaching practice.

One of the rationales for teaching practice is that it can be used as a platform for student teachers to practise how to teach. According to Cohen et al. (2013:346), teaching practice can be used as a 'professional training ground'. Traditionally, teaching practice is conducted in a school where student teachers first experience an induction into the teaching profession. In addition, the school serves as a workplace for student teachers who qualify later as teachers. Therefore, in terms of teaching practice, a school setting is an appropriate substitute for future workplaces for student teachers.

Another rationale for teaching practice involves the application of academic content. During teaching practice, student teachers are given the opportunity to apply the theory learned at college or university in a classroom situation. For example, a theory of learning has to be blended with practice in a classroom. In short, the theory needs to be actualised for the benefit of learners. When the theory is applied and the

objective of the lesson is achieved, it can be said that the theory-practice gap in education is being minimised. Accordingly, Cohen et al. (2013:346) acknowledge the fact that teaching practice has the potential to reduce the gap between pedagogical research and theory and instructional practice.

A further rationale is that teaching practice is used as a platform to acquaint student teachers with different educational settings (Cohen et al., 2013:346). This means that teaching practice is a vehicle that can be used to familiarise student teachers with different learning environments. When exposed to such different learning environments, student teachers learn how to deal with diverse and unfamiliar settings through the support they receive mainly from the school staff. The experience gained from such exposure is important to student teachers as they can use it to address problems that they may encounter in the future.

Finally, during teaching practice student teachers are expected to be mentored by supervising teachers. It is common for a class teacher to supervise a student teacher who takes over his or her class. The class teacher helps the student teacher in many ways. For example, the class teacher can advise the student teacher on the appropriateness of a teaching methodology on a given topic. Apart from teaching practice being used to impart knowledge and skills about teaching to student teachers, it is also a good ground for encouraging and supporting student teachers in the “development of their personal identity” (Cohen et al., 2013:346). The development of personal identity is critical as it has a bearing on how student teachers relate to both school staff and the pupils with whom they are in direct contact. Supervising teachers have an important role to play in the development of these identities.

Tameh (2011:341) adds that the rationale for teaching practice includes the following: it helps the student teacher to practise the use of teaching aids and how to handle pupils; it also affords them an opportunity to learn about the new developments in teaching and the use of learner-oriented and activity-based activities. The student teachers have an opportunity to practise their teaching using teaching aids. Additionally, while using teaching aids, a student teacher is expected to evaluate the effectiveness of such teaching aids in helping pupils to learn. In short, the use of a given teaching aid is aimed at meeting the objective of a lesson.

Furthermore, teaching practice should enable student teachers to learn how to relate with pupils of different backgrounds and behaviour.

In summary, teaching practice provides an appropriate platform for student teachers to showcase their knowledge and skills by translating theory into practice in a work-related environment. The main objective of teaching practice is, therefore, to give a student teacher a chance to practise teaching pupils in a classroom situation. It is also during teaching practice that student teachers' competencies are evaluated.

Having discussed the rationale for teaching practice, the study presents the objectives of teaching practice in the next section.

2.3.4 Objectives of teaching practice

Teaching practice gives student teachers an opportunity to practise in the classroom what they have learned. This is not only required for nurturing their teaching skills but also enhances their understanding of their profession (Ulvik & Smith, 2011:520). The teaching practice session can be used as a yardstick to determine how student teachers will perform as future teachers (Gujjar et al., 2010:339). The value of teaching practice can be seen in what it is intended to achieve, namely to produce an efficient and able teacher to teach and help pupils to learn.

Gujjar et al. (2010:339) affirm that the most valuable component of the "teacher training programme" is teaching practice. Celawu, Salawu and Osuji (2008:1) support this view when they state that no teacher education programme can exist without a good teaching practice programme. The expectation of the Zambian education system is that a well-trained student teacher should be one who has not only acquired adequate knowledge in the teaching subject or subjects he/she has trained in, but also skills such as teaching methods to help the pupils to learn in the most effective way. This expectation is clearly highlighted in the Zambia National Implementation Framework 2008 – 2010 as follows:

...to address the rising demand for places at primary and secondary education levels by producing sufficient teachers while at the same time ensuring that graduate teachers are qualified and competent to handle appropriate levels of education (Ministry of Education, 2007: 24).

Teaching practice has educational objectives that student teachers attempt to achieve. However, these objectives tend to vary from one country to another. The objectives clearly demonstrate why student teachers are required to learn about educational theories and teaching methods before they are allowed to practise their teaching skills during teaching practice in schools. While researching teaching practice in Kenya, Ong'ondo (2009:55) identified certain objectives of teaching practice. Some of the objectives were that student teachers should be able to:

- “put theory into practice;
- improve knowledge of subject matter;
- link pedagogy to aims and ends of education; and
- master the skill of assessing pupils' work” (p.55).

To appreciate the importance of these teaching practice objectives as presented by Ong'ondo (2009:55), a brief explanation is given. The primary duty of a student teacher doing teaching practice is to teach pupils. This is made possible by the fact that during training a student teacher is taught how to teach. Therefore, a student teacher is expected to practise what he/she learned during training. Additionally, a student teacher acquires skills in order to be able to assess pupils' work. The assessment of pupils' work is important because this is used to determine the extent to which the objectives of the lesson have been addressed. The application of different methods of teaching in order to achieve the aims of education is another important objective for conducting teaching practice.

From the foregoing, it may be inferred that the overall objective of teaching practice is for student teachers to demonstrate their understanding of what they have learned during training by teaching pupils in a class. In this regard, the objectives of teaching practice are important in that they influence the manner in which teaching practice is organised. Similarly, what a student teacher is expected to do during teaching practice will be determined largely by what the teacher training institution has set as objectives for the teaching practice programme. In this study, therefore, a student teacher will be expected to do teaching practice in line with the objectives that the University of Zambia has put in place. In light of this, the next two sections will explain briefly how teaching practice is organised, and will describe some common models of teaching practice.

2.4 MODELS AND ORGANISATION OF TEACHING PRACTICE

This section is divided into two subsections. The first subsection provides an outline of models of teaching practice while the second discusses the organisation of teaching practice in selected countries.

2.4.1 Models of teaching practice

Mattsson, Eilertsen and Rorrison (2011:8) have identified the following models for teaching practice:

- The Master-Apprentice model. Here an experienced teacher is assigned to mentor and initiate the trainee teacher into the teaching profession.
- The Laboratory model. The training institution is required to set up a special school where student teachers can practise teaching.
- The Partnership model. This is a model in which a university and local schools agree to use the latter's facilities for teaching practice and supervision. Experienced teachers are appointed to supervise the student teachers.
- The Community Development model. This model usually takes place in rural settings. Its objective is to allow student teachers to be innovative and to contribute towards finding solutions to the existing problems of the school and local community and to "improve their pedagogical standard".
- The integrated model. This model provides for shared responsibility between universities and communities in implementing teaching practice. The shared responsibility acts as a unifying factor between universities and communities.
- The Case-based model. This model is believed to have been "inspired by the practical wisdom of medicine". It enhances pre-service teachers' learning through interaction with various cases. The pre-service teachers acquire the skill to "interpret cases in light of research, theory and experience" (Mattsson et al., 2011:8).
- The Platform model. This model involves student teachers' participation in projects based on their individual needs and interests. Working together on projects even beyond the stipulated duration for teaching practice promotes good working relationships between universities and schools. The model also advocates for different ways of reporting and assessing the teaching practice.

- The Community of Practice model. The model assumes that participants will learn from each other. It instils a sense of inquiry among the student teachers as they interact with different people and encounter different experiences.
- The Research and Development model. The model requires universities and communities to agree to work together to improve research and develop the school.

Of the above listed teaching practice models, none of them entirely matches the University of Zambia model. However, the University of Zambia has two prominent features that appear similar to the partnership model: the University of Zambia makes arrangements with the schools where teaching practice is conducted just like the partnership model, and it involves both teacher educators and school teachers in the supervision of teaching practice. Masaiti and Manchishi (2011:3) describe the teaching practice model that the University of Zambia uses as “traditional”, according to which student teachers spend more time in a training institution before they go to do teaching practice in schools. Masaiti and Manchishi (2011:3) observe that this kind of teacher training programme is more “tilted towards theory than practice”.

In light of this, the teaching practice model for the University of Zambia can be considered to be similar or equivalent to the partnership model. However, caution should be exercised in the use of the term ‘partnership’. The partnership being referred to here is very basic in that the stake that the University of Zambia and schools have in this relationship is not well balanced, and neither is it firmly entrenched. This is because under the traditional view of practice teaching, schools are not fully involved in the organisation of teaching practice because “most power lies with the training institution” (Zeichner, 2010:90). Robinson (2016:13) adds that university-schools relationship in teaching practice is loosely defined and that supervising teachers in schools “are seen as informal guides rather than equal partners”.

Teaching practice models tend to have strengths and weaknesses. As Ong’ondo and Jwan (2009:517) observe, some universities spend more time preparing student teachers in theory and end up with most of their student teachers experiencing serious challenges during teaching practice. Citing studies conducted by Caires and

Almeida (2005) in Portugal, and Liston, Whitcomb and Borko (2006) in North America, Ong'ondo and Jwan (2009:517) explain that, given the limited time, student teachers are under pressure to perform according to the procedures taught. This is why some student teachers end up imitating exactly the way their teacher educators trained them to teach (Solomon, Croft, Duah & Lawson, 2014:327). This leads to student teachers' failure to use common sense based on their experiences. The result is a weak relationship between coursework and practice. Seemingly, student teachers are stronger in coursework as more time has been allocated to it.

To minimise the impact of the weak relationship between coursework and practice, some teacher training institutions combine the above mentioned models in a variety of ways (Mattsson et al., 2011:9). Each of these models spells out the participants' tasks and responsibilities. For example, in the Laboratory model, the tasks and responsibilities of teacher educators in a teacher training institution are mainly to train student teachers in the subject content and instructional methods, while the special school staff engages student teachers in implementing teaching practice.

In the researcher's view, the choice of a teaching practice model may be influenced by a number of factors. For example, a training institution with a strong financial base can choose either the platform or the case-based model. This is because these models by their nature require sufficient and stable financial resources. In addition, enough time is needed to practise how to teach as well as carry out other activities such as research as is the case with the case-based model. Above all, the choice of a teaching practice model is influenced by the objectives of teaching practice that a training institution aspires to achieve. In short, an appropriate teaching practice model for any given teacher training institution is chosen on the basis of the objectives it wants to achieve.

From the foregoing, it can be acknowledged that different teacher education institutions tend to apply different teaching practice models based on their capacity and what they want to achieve. Having described the teaching practice models, the next section discusses the organisation of teaching practice in selected countries.

2.4.2 ORGANISATION OF TEACHING PRACTICE IN SELECTED COUNTRIES

A brief description of the organisation of teaching practice is critical to this study in that it speaks to the topic of the current study. However, the description limits itself to highlighting few aspects of teaching practice such as the time when student teachers qualify to do teaching practice, when and where teaching practice is conducted, and the duration of the teaching practice.

Teacher education institutions worldwide have developed teaching practice programmes comprising a practical component in which learning occurs through teaching situations and a component in which learning is theoretical–academic (Shagrir, 2013:172). For a long time, the school classroom has been used as a practice site for teaching practice by student teachers (Cantalini-Williams, Cooper, Grierson, Maynes, Rich, Tessaro, Brewer, Tedesco & Wideman-Johnston, 2014:3). The way teaching practice is organised, however, can vary within a country as well as from one country to the next. In North America, for example, most teacher education programmes comprise coursework and teaching practice in schools. The teaching practice runs for 2 to 12 weeks, during which time the student teacher is supervised by an experienced teacher (Belliveau, 2007:51). However, in some African countries such as Gambia and Lesotho, student teachers do teaching practice for 12 and 8 weeks respectively (Mulkeen, 2010:85) during which occasional supervision is conducted.

Similarly, preparation standards for teachers to teach at various levels of the education system tend to be different in many countries (Goodnough, Osmond, Dibbon, Glassman & Stevens, 2008:285). While universities usually train secondary school teachers, teacher training colleges train primary school teachers (Cooper & Alvarado, 2006:13). In Ghana, with over 41 colleges of education, primary school teachers are trained for three years and awarded a diploma or certificate in teaching, depending on the level of study they undertook. At the same time, universities such as the University of Cape Coast, the University of Education, Winneba and the Catholic University College of Ghana offer 4-year degree programmes to teachers (Asare & Nti, 2014:5). Due to the varying levels of study, the organisation of teaching practice tends to vary as well.

The next two subsections are devoted to identifying and describing similarities and differences in the organisation of teaching practice in selected countries. For the purpose of this discussion, seven countries have been selected as shown in Table 2.1. The selected countries include Malaysia and China from Asia, while four countries namely Zimbabwe, Kenya, Namibia and South Africa are from Africa. The other country is Australia, which is in the Pacific region. The third subsection focuses on the main differences in teaching practice between the USA and China, which both have a long history of teacher education and teaching practice in particular.

2.4.2.1 Similarities in the organisation of teaching practice

The first similarity in the organisation of teaching practice is that teacher training institutions in countries such as Malaysia, Zimbabwe, Kenya, Namibia, South Africa and Australia engage both teacher educators and supervising teachers in the implementation of teaching practice. While on teaching practice, student teachers are guided and supervised by both supervising teachers and university lecturers. For example, Scott (2013:S151) reports that student teachers in Namibia are observed and evaluated by subject teachers (supervising teachers) and university supervisors (teacher educators) on prescribed evaluation forms provided by the faculty.

The second similarity in the organisation of teaching practice is that faculties of education ensure that before student teachers go for teaching practice, they are taught both content and teaching methodology courses over a given period before they are allowed to start practising how to teach. In North America, most teacher education programmes comprise coursework and teaching practice in schools, with the latter lasting between 2 and 12 weeks (Belliveau, 2007:51). Similarly, Chunmei and Chuanjun (2015:232) report that in the English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teacher training programme, the “learn-the-theory-and-then-practise” approach is followed. The first three years focus on on-campus courses to develop student teachers’ professional skills, with language development and subject knowledge imparted before teaching practice is conducted.

Table 2.1: Organisation of teaching practice in selected countries

Name of country	Teacher training institution	Supervising staff	Time for teaching practice	Duration	Teaching practice site	Source (author)
Malaysia	University	Teacher educators and supervising teachers		14 weeks	Schools	Bakar, A.R., Mohammed, S. & Zakaria, S.N. (2012)
Zimbabwe	Primary teachers' college	Teacher educators and supervising teachers	2 nd year for a diploma qualification	Varies from a term (i.e. approx. 14 weeks) to a year and a half depending on programme	Schools	Maphosa, R. & Ndamba, G.T. (2012); Mashava, R. & Chingombe, A. (2013)
Kenya	Egerton University	Teacher educators and supervising teachers	After 3 rd year of study	14–16 weeks	Schools	Wambugu, P., Barmao, A. & Ng'eno, J. (2013)
Namibia	University of Namibia	Teacher educators and supervising teachers	In 4 th year of study	In 2 nd , 3 rd & 4 th year of study	Schools	Scott, A. (2013)
Australia	La Trobe University	Teacher educators, supervising teachers and teaching practice coordinators	At 1 st year for diploma qualification	Minimum of 45 days (i.e. 6 ½ weeks)	Schools	Collett, P. (2007)
China	University in Central China	Teacher educators and supervising teachers	At 4 th year	Six weeks in 2009 but later increased to ten weeks	Schools	Chunmei, Y.A.N. & Chuanjun, H.E. (2015)
South Africa	University of South Africa	Teacher educators and supervising teachers	After 3 rd year of study	Ten weeks (but there are variations)	Schools	Du Plessis, E.C. & Marais, P. (2010)

The use of schools as teaching practice sites is another important similarity in the organisation of teaching practice. The school as a teaching practice site is very appropriate because it gives student teachers an opportunity to have hands-on experience of teaching in a real classroom situation. Goh and Blake (2015:475) observe that the best way to learn how to teach is to practise in a school environment. Wambugu et al. (2013:171) and Scott (2013:S151) explain that the student teachers are expected to prepare, plan, teach and interact with school pupils and teachers during teaching practice at both Egerton University in Kenya and the University of Namibia. In this way, student teachers have the practical experience of teaching.

Another similarity in the organisation of teaching practice between teacher training institutions in Zimbabwe and Namibia is the frequency with which student teachers are exposed to schools where teaching practice is done. In Namibia, student teachers at the University of Namibia are required to complete three phases of teaching practice. During the first and second phases, student teachers observe experienced teachers teaching for three weeks and teach a couple of lessons in their major subjects. In the third phase, student teachers are placed by the Faculty of Education in selected secondary schools (Scott, 2013:S151).

2.4.2.2 Differences in the organisation of teaching practice

Differences in the organisation of teaching practice by different teacher training institutions and/or countries can be identified in Table 2.1. The main differences relate mostly to the duration and the time when teaching practice takes place. On the duration of teaching practice, Bakar et al. (2012:499) state that in Malaysia teaching practice lasts 14 weeks. This duration differs slightly from Kenya's Egerton University which conducts it for a period of between 14 and 16 weeks (Wambugu et al., 2013:171). However, at the Bendigo campus of the La Trobe University, Australia, teaching practice for the Graduate Diploma in Secondary Education runs for at least 45 days (just over 7 weeks). In what is referred to as a 3-3-3 model of teacher training in Zimbabwe, student teachers spend the entire second year of study on teaching practice (Maphosa & Ndamba, 2012).

It must be mentioned that in some countries the duration of teaching practice varies from one institution to another and sometimes even within the same institution offering different pre-service teacher programmes. Taylor (2014:26) reveals that the duration for teaching practice in South Africa can vary between 10 and 35 weeks. For example, the duration of teaching practice (indicated in brackets) at four different universities in South Africa is as follows: the University of Pretoria and University of South Africa, 10 weeks each for a postgraduate certificate in education, the University of Johannesburg, between 8 and 10 weeks, and North-West University, 2 weeks (Du Plessis & Marais, 2010:325). Mashava and Chingombe (2013:S135) report also that in Zimbabwe the period varies from a term to a year and a half, depending on the institution. For example, in the primary teachers' colleges which offer a 3-year diploma, student teachers spend five terms on teaching practice with

supervised teaching (Maphosa & Ndamba, 2012:76, Mashava & Chingombe, 2013:S135). A House of Representatives' report of 2007 as cited by Turner (2011:23) has noted variations that characterise the duration of teaching practice in pre-service teacher programmes in Australia as well. For example, whereas at La Trobe University in Bendigo, Australia, teaching practice for the Graduate Diploma in Secondary Education runs for at least 45 days (just over 7 weeks), other teacher training institutions have different durations for teaching practice.

Another notable difference in the organisation of teaching practice relates to the timing and number of times teaching practice is conducted. Where teaching practice is done once, it is often conducted during the final stages of training. For example, at Egerton University in Kenya, teaching practice is conducted in the third year of training (Wambugu et al., 2013:171) while in China teaching practice takes place at the start of the fourth (final) year (Chunmei & Chuanjun, 2015:232). With regard to the number of times teaching practice is conducted, some training institutions do it once while others do it more than once. For example, Du Plessis and Marais (2013:215) report that students enrolled for the BEd (Early Childhood Development and Foundation) at the University of South Africa do teaching practice three times, that is in their first, second and third years of training. As indicated earlier, teacher training institutions in Zimbabwe and Namibia subject student teachers to more than one teaching practice session while Malaysia, Kenya and China do it once only.

Apart from the information presented in Table 2.1, an attempt is hereby made to examine how the USA and China organises teaching practice compared to Zambia. The USA and China have been chosen as examples in this study because they have diverse, robust and long histories of teacher education from which some important lessons can be drawn. In both the USA and China, teaching practice is a compulsory component of teacher education. Teaching practice, however, varies in terms of nature, length and frequency from one country to the other. Ping and Chunxia (2006:16) add that differences exist in length of time, the number of units, subjects taught, and arrangements in student teaching.

According to Goodnough et al. (2008:285), great differences exist in the nature, structure and the ways in which different teacher training institutions organise their teaching practice. In the same vein, differences can be identified in the way teaching

practice is conducted in the USA and China on one hand and Zambia (in particular the University of Zambia) on the other hand. One notable difference in the conduct of teaching practice is that whereas teacher training institutions in the USA and China set aside a longer period for student teaching practice, Zambia has a shorter period.

A second difference concerns the number of subjects that a student teacher is supposed to teach during teaching practice. At the University of Zambia, a student teacher enrolls for one or two teaching subjects (Masaiti & Manchishi, 2011:320), which they later teach during teaching practice. However, as noted earlier, while China allows student teachers to teach only one subject during teaching practice, the USA allows the student teachers to teach all of the subjects.

The third difference lies in the amount of attention given to the student teacher during teaching practice. The teacher educators from the University of Zambia observe the student teachers on teaching practice at least once before they grade them. In addition, school teachers assigned to work with the student teachers as supervising teachers are also required to monitor their activities. However, in the USA, teacher educators visit student teachers on teaching practice more regularly than they do in Zambia.

In China, teacher educators are on site on a daily basis to observe the students on teaching practice. According to Tang (2003:483), one of the major concerns in initial teacher education is the quality of student teachers' learning experiences during teaching practice. The researcher, therefore, finds it worthwhile to investigate the effectiveness of teaching practice organised by the University of Zambia in the midst of differences in such aspects as the length of time, subjects taught and arrangements in student teaching.

According to McNamara (1995:51), in countries such as the UK and the USA, the debate is over the contribution that supervising teachers and teacher educators should make to students' preparation for teaching. Often the discussion on these themes is characterised by value-laden claims, rather than based on evidence. This may also apply to the views expressed in a study conducted by Masaiti and Manchishi (2011) about the training of teachers at the University of Zambia. The views expressed in this study were obtained from high school teachers who were

graduates of the University of Zambia. The study concluded that student teachers from the University of Zambia were not provided with enough skills and knowledge in lesson delivery. However, the researcher's considered view is that the study's population should have included teacher educators for the purpose of triangulating the data obtained from the student teachers. This is because the knowledge and skills that student teachers 'showcase' during teaching practice are largely a representation of what they learn at the University of Zambia.

In conclusion, it has been affirmed that the organisation of teaching practice is similar and different in various ways from one institution to the other and from one country to the next. It is also worth noting that teacher educators, supervising teachers and student teachers appear to be the main players and the focus of teaching practice. It can also be stated that many teacher education institutions use schools as sites for teaching practice. It is also true that student teachers go for teaching practice after a reasonable measure of content and methodology courses have been completed. In addition, teacher training institutions send student teachers for teaching practice at different academic levels.

Furthermore, differences in the organisation of teaching practice have also been noted. Specifically, there are differences in the timing and duration of teaching practice. For example, while some institutions conduct teaching practice in the final year of programme, others do it much earlier. Variations in the duration of teaching practice and the number of times that student teachers have to do teaching practice have also been noted.

Having discussed the similarities and differences in the organisation of teaching practice of selected countries, the study will now shift attention to teacher education and national education policy in Zambia. As has been mentioned, the focus of the study is on the implementation of teaching practice, a major component of teacher education, by the University of Zambia.

2.5 TEACHER EDUCATION AND EDUCATION POLICY IN ZAMBIA

This section is divided into three parts. The first part describes briefly the historical development of teacher education in Zambia. It is divided into three periods namely: the pre-independence era, i.e. before 1964; the period 1964 to 1989; and from 1990

to date. The second part of this section describes the national policy on education in Zambia while the third part discusses implications of the education policy on teacher training in Zambia. The discussion on the historical development of teacher education is critical to this study as it highlights the major efforts made in expanding and improving the training of teachers. As Newville (2011:1) explains, the history and growth of teacher education is important as it helps us understand what we can do to improve the preparation of teachers. Equally, the discussion of the national policy on education is important as the policy directly affects the development of teacher education.

2.5.1 Historical development of teacher education in Zambia

The following three subsections provide highlights on the development of teacher education in Zambia since the pre-independence era to date.

2.5.1.1 Teacher education in the pre-independence era

The advent of teacher education in Zambia can be traced mainly to missionary activity. In terms of period, teacher education in Zambia dates back to the pre-independence era (i.e. before 1964). According to Manchishi (2000:225) and Mwanakatwe (2013:291), the early missionaries were responsible for the initiation of teacher training in the then Northern Rhodesia (now Zambia) and that elementary training in teaching was done at all mission stations. By 1925, there were two teacher training colleges, namely Sefula and Kafue Institutes, and by 1960 there were seven grades of teachers trained locally.

2.5.1.2 Teacher education from 1964 to 1989

The Government of the Republic of Zambia started expanding the education sector, especially the primary and secondary school levels, as soon as political independence was attained in 1964. This expansion was a response to the lack of trained manpower in the various fields of technical and economic activity (Mwanakatwe, 1968:37) including education. For example, at the dawn of independence only 1200 Zambians had obtained a secondary school certificate (Mwanakatwe, 1968:37). However, the rapid expansion of schools outstripped the number of teachers available for teaching. For example, enrolments in primary and secondary schools grew at an average annual rate of 5.5% and 10.5% respectively

(Ministry of Education, 1992:9). This led to the construction of more teacher training colleges. Table 2.2 below shows the rapid growth in enrolments of students in teacher training institutions, namely the University of Zambia (UNZA), Secondary School Teachers Colleges (SSTC) and Primary School Teachers Training Colleges (PSTTC) during the period 1968 to 1975.

Table 2.2 Enrolments in teacher training institutions from 1968 to 1975

Year	1968	1969	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	Totals
UNZA	99	218	243	259	282	314	511	442	2 368
SSTC	-	-	-	119	156	233	358	455	1 321
PSTTC	-	-	-	869	913	938	972	1 123	4 815
Totals	99	218	243	1 247	1 351	1 485	1 841	2 020	8 504

Note: Reprinted from Mwanakatwe, 2013. p.293.

From a historical perspective, it may be concluded that teacher education and training in Zambia increased as a response to the requirements of the expanding education system (Musonda, 1999:158; Mwanakatwe, 2013:291).

2.5.1.3 Teacher education from 1990 to date

In the 1990s, there were only two principal programmes that existed for the sole purpose of pre-service training of teachers for grades 8 to 12 in Zambia (Ministry of Education, 1996:111). These were:

- the University of Zambia which offered a BAEd and BSc. Ed. degree programmes,
- Kwame Nkrumah College (now Nkrumah University), (BA Ed),
- Copperbelt Teachers' College (now Mukuba University) (BA Ed), and
- Luanshya Technical and Vocational College which offered diploma programmes.

In recent years, many privately-owned institutions such as Zambian Open University and Lusaka University have been established and are also involved in the training of pre-service teachers in the country. The construction of new teacher training colleges by the government and private institutions has continued in response to the rising demand for more qualified teachers at all levels of the education system. In 2012, there were 17 universities, of which three were public (Ministry of Finance, 2014:100).

In terms of teacher output, the public teacher education institutions in the 1990s used to produce 700 qualified secondary school teachers annually, of which between 150 and 180 were graduates of the University of Zambia (Ministry of Education, 1996:111). This number can be considered inadequate due to the mismatch between supply and demand, the loss of teachers through attrition, and the rising demand for teachers in basic schools.

From the foregoing, it is evident that since independence the number of teacher training institutions and schools has been increasing. The increase in the number of teacher training institutions has been a response to the increase in the number of primary and secondary schools. These changes are based on the education policies that are developed by the government from time to time.

The education policies are important because they provide guidelines on how an education system should be run. They have a direct bearing on the development and conduct of teacher training at the UNZA. For example, the policy has a bearing on how teachers are recruited and prepared for the teaching profession. In light of this, the next section discusses the national policy on education in Zambia.

2.6.2 National policies on education in Zambia

Zambia has had three major policy documents on education since independence in 1964 that have been guiding the theory and practice of teacher education (Musonda, 1999:158; MoESVTEE, 2012:3). The policies are Education Reform (1977), Focus on Learning (1992) and Educating Our Future (1996). As can be seen, over the years national policies on education in Zambia have changed. These changes have had an influence on the development of teacher education.

Anyon (2005:65) explains that a review of an education policy is important in making decisions on how schools should be run to avoid previous pitfalls. In Zambia, issues of education policy are valued because they help in arriving at an appropriate framework for the education system in line with the country's development agenda (Ministry of Education, 1996:ix). For example, a policy can help to determine the inputs and processes of teacher education such as recruitment, the content and the requirements of pre-service preparation programmes. This section is discussed according to each policy.

2.6.2.1 Education Reform Policy (1977)

The first major education policy in Zambia after attaining political independence was the Education Reform Policy in 1977. This policy was born out of concerns of people that the education system was failing to meet their aspirations. The education system was considered to be too “bookish” to respond effectively to the challenges and aspirations of the country (Manchishi, 2013:16). This led to the review of the entire education system. The final document entitled: The Educational Reform Proposals and Recommendations, was published in 1977. In these reforms, education was seen as “a tool for personal development” (Manchishi, 2004:n.p.). For this reason, a well-trained teacher was needed to execute the reforms.

The reforms recognised the importance of teacher education when it stated that teacher education should ensure that trainee teachers are equipped with knowledge and skills to impart to the children, youth and adults so that they too can be self-reliant. The major feature of the reforms was the expansion of basic and high schools with a focus on skills development (MoESVTEE, 2012:11). To attain this, the Education Reforms recommended that teachers must not only learn about teaching but should learn about other disciplines also (Ministry of Education, 1977:61).

2.6.2.2 Focus on Learning (1992)

The second major education policy document is called Focus on Learning. Following the 1990 World Conference on Education for All in Jomtien, Thailand, Zambia organised a national conference on Educational for All which culminated in the publication of the Focus on Learning policy document in 1992, and subsequently replaced the 1977 Education Reform document. The new document was given the title: ‘Focus on Learning – Strategies for the Development of the School Education in Zambia’. The major focus of this policy was on the expansion of basic education (i.e. nine years of initial schooling). The rapid expansion of the basic schools led to a shortage of teachers. Alternative solutions were sought as the training colleges could not cope with the demand for teachers. According to Musonda (1999:159) and the Ministry of Education (1992:17), grade 12 school leavers were expected to have acquired sufficient knowledge and skills which would enable them to teach primary school children. This led to the employment of school leavers as untrained teachers for primary schools. In addition, the policy required teacher training institutions to

increase technical capabilities among trainees so that they could, in turn, apply them at specific school levels.

It is clear from the foregoing statement that the focus of training was on primary school teachers. This was meant to address the shortage of teachers that had resulted from the expansion of the education system.

2.6.2.3 Educating Our Future (1996)

The third major policy document on education in Zambia came into being in 1996 following the country's reversion to a multi-party democratic system of government in 1991. Following this new development, the Government of the Republic of Zambia introduced a new education policy. The new education policy document came to be known as 'Educating Our Future'.

According to the Ministry of Education (1996:5), some of the goals of education, in summary, are as follows:

- to produce a learner capable of utilising his or her intellectual capacity to contribute meaningfully to the country's development agenda and lead a more fulfilling life,
- to increase access to education and life skills training, and
- to build capacity for the provision of quality education.

The Educating Our Future policy document on education concludes that these goals will provide direction to all education providers on matters of policy and practice and will also be the foundation for teaching and learning in schools and colleges (Ministry of Education, 1996:6). This means that to achieve educational goals, the training of teachers should be in line with the education policy (MoESVTEE, 2012:12). The policy affirmed that the quality of teachers had a bearing on the quality and effectiveness of the education system. In view of this requirement, teachers were expected to be knowledgeable in their subject areas in order to teach learners effectively (Ministry of Education, 1996:108).

2.6.3 Implications of the education policies on teacher education in Zambia

Generally speaking, education policies have had implications for teacher training in Zambia. Often, a policy is aimed at addressing a particular issue or problem. For

example, during the period 1964 to 1989, there was massive infrastructure development in the education sector as a response to the rising numbers of children that needed school placement (Mwanakatwe, 2013, 291). An increase in the number of children enrolled in schools resulted in a shortage of teachers. The shortage of teachers necessitated the construction of more teacher training colleges.

The shortage of teachers continued into the 1990s. To address the shortage of qualified teachers, the government introduced a teacher training programme known as the Field Based Teacher Training Approach (FIBATTA) in 1997. It was aimed at training teachers for grades 1 to 7. This strategy was in line with a recommendation in the Focus on Learning policy document which emphasised compulsory education for every eligible child (Ministry of Education, 1992:15). The FIBATTA as a trial programme lasted barely three months before it was replaced by a donor-driven programme called Zambia Education Reform Programme (ZATERP) (Musonda, 1999:162; Manchishi, 2013:22). To meet the demand for teachers, more trainee teachers were enrolled as existing college infrastructure was expanded, new colleges were opened, distance learning programmes, boarding and day facilities for training were introduced, while the duration of the training programme was reduced from two years to one year (Ministry of Education, 1996:109).

The Zambia Teacher Education Course (ZATEC) was another teacher training programme that was introduced in line with the guidelines in the Educating Our Future policy document of 1996. The major aim of ZATEC was two-fold: to improve quality in basic education and to increase teacher supply. The main feature of ZATEC was that trainee teachers were expected to spend the first year learning in college while in the second year they would go for teaching practice for one year. At the end of the second year, student teachers considered to have performed well qualified as teachers.

Two important implications of the ZATEC programme for both the student teachers and supervising teachers in schools may be noted. First, the foundation and methodology courses were taught in one year, a period which may not have been sufficient for the preparation of student teachers to do teaching practice. To what extent, therefore, were the student teachers ready to practise teaching? Second, during this programme the supervising teachers in schools devoted part of their time

to the supervision of student teachers for one year in addition to their routine work. With the added responsibility for a year, how effective were the supervising teachers both in supervising student teachers and in their routine work? What impact did this have on the learners? The answers to these questions are not known as there has been no study to determine the effect of the ZATEC programme on teachers and pupils.

In the Educating our Future document, grade 12 school leavers were expected to acquire enough knowledge and skills to meet the shortfall of teachers (Ministry of Education, 1996:108). The implication of this policy was that grade 12 school leavers were employed as untrained teachers in primary schools. Again the effect of this policy on the quality of education has not been established. It is worth mentioning that education policies provide guidelines on how the education system should be managed. However, whether these policies have achieved or are achieving their objectives is another matter.

All three of the major educational policy documents outlined above have been aimed at developing human resources as a basis for sustained economic growth. The policies have been responding not only to the aspirations and vision of the government but also to the economic, social and political changes in the country. All three of the educational policy documents have tended to focus more on primary, secondary and colleges of education rather than on higher institutions of learning. In spite of the importance of teaching practice in teacher education, none of the education policy documents referred directly to teaching practice. All of these documents are silent on this important issue. In the researcher's view, this is a policy gap. However, it should be mentioned that the University of Zambia, like other institutions of higher learning, is autonomous and as such creates and runs its own programmes. This position is supported by the Educating our Future policy document which states that universities are responsible for their programmes but that their teaching and research programmes must be directed at addressing the needs of the Zambians (Ministry of Education, 1996:98). In this regard, the University of Zambia is expected to conduct teaching practice in line with the national education policy.

To the best of the researcher's knowledge, the only official document that has made reference to teaching practice and its value in teacher training is the Zambia Education Curriculum Framework (ZECF) of 2012. The ZECF also recommends that teaching practice should be conducted in not less than one full school term. In addition, it applauds the roles that the members of the teaching practice triad play in teaching practice (MoESVTEE, 2012:49). This document is important as it provides some parameters that could help guide this study.

Having examined the national policies on education in Zambia and their implications on the education system, the next section examines teaching practice in Zambia.

2.7 TEACHING PRACTICE IN ZAMBIA

This section is divided into two subsections. The first subsection describes how teaching practice is implemented by the University of Zambia in secondary schools in general. The second subsection reviews selected studies on teaching practice in Zambia.

2.7.1 Teaching practice at the University of Zambia

As noted in the previous paragraph, the first part of this section describes how teaching practice is implemented at the University of Zambia. According to the 2007 Annual Report of the School of Education of the University of Zambia, the School of Education had eight departments (School of Education, 2010:10). However, in 2010 the number of departments rose to nine following the creation of the department of Religious Education (School of Education, 2013: n.p.). In total, the School of Education has seven teacher degree programmes of which two offer science-based teaching subjects while the rest offer arts-based teaching subjects (School of Education, 2010:10). According to the Zambia Education Curriculum Framework (MoESVTEE, 2012:50), the curriculum for the School of Education is based on the subjects taught in secondary schools. The secondary school teacher education course graduates qualify to teach grades 8 to 12 (MoESVTEE, 2012:50).

During the training, students are required to do content and methodology-based courses in their area of specialisation. For example, in the first and second years of study, students are required to take a maximum of two teaching subjects that they intend to teach. In addition, students take compulsory education foundation courses

such as Philosophy of Education and the History and Development of Education in Zambia. In the third and fourth years, more advanced methods courses and practical skills are introduced. For example, in as far as practical skills are concerned, students start attending demonstration lessons by the teacher educators. Later, student teachers start doing peer teaching (also known as microteaching).

Although peer teaching, which dates back to the 60s, has been criticised for concealing the characteristics of the technician's view of teaching (Tuluze & Cecen, 2016:128), it still remains an important part of teacher training at the University of Zambia. The value of peer teaching is demonstrated by the fact that it is graded and added to the final grade for each teaching subject taken. These activities are part of the preparations for teaching practice. Therefore, it may suffice to describe teaching practice as a process.

The University of Zambia usually allocates approximately six weeks to teaching practice. Simuyaba, Banda, Mweemba and Muleya (2015:92) confirm the duration of teaching practice when they report that the teaching practice programme at the University of Zambia is six weeks unlike that for colleges where it is done for two full terms of three months each. However, it must be stated that according to the Zambia Education Curriculum Framework of 2012, teaching practice is expected to last not less than one full term (approximately 14 weeks) (MoESVTEE, 2012:49). At the University of Zambia teaching practice takes place in selected schools at the end of the third year of study.

Manchishi and Mwanza (2013:62) report that according to the guidelines of the University of Zambia (UNZA) School of Education, the purpose of teaching practice is to enable students to observe qualified and experienced teachers in action; link university courses to classroom teaching; plan, prepare and present appropriate materials for the learners; develop organisational skills and self-confidence; and create healthy working relationships with pupils and teachers. In this regard, teaching practice is aimed at ensuring that student teachers learn how to teach effectively and with confidence while maintaining a harmonious working relationship with the school staff and pupils.

Manchishi (2013:29) asserts that the preparation of student teachers at the University of Zambia seems to focus on the subject and didactic competencies to the detriment of the other three competencies, namely adaptive and developmental competence, social competence and professional ethics competence. Since university teacher educators and supervising teachers have an important role to play in shaping the knowledge and skills of student teachers, it is prudent that their experiences of teaching practice in Zambia be investigated in order to provide further insight into the problem.

Experiential (practical) learning is critical in the preparation of teachers. This is why student teachers are required to do teaching practice outside the University of Zambia at secondary schools. Asada (2012:56) argues that when a trainee teacher is not guided to learn from their practice teaching, he or she will fail to develop practical knowledge. Failure to develop practical knowledge could retard the professional growth of a trainee teacher even if they are suitably qualified in a subject. "Practical knowledge contains experiential knowledge that is mostly undocumented but of immediate importance for student teachers on teaching practice" (Zanting, Verloop & Vermunt, 2001:726). Further, when practical knowledge is accessed, it can help to narrow the gap between theory learned at the teacher-training college or university and practice in schools.

While on teaching practice in schools, the student teachers are expected to perform the duties of a teacher under the guidance of a qualified and experienced teacher, namely the supervising teacher in the school. The student teachers are assessed while they are teaching in class by both the supervising teachers from the schools and the teacher educators from the University of Zambia.

Having considered the implementation of teaching practice at the University of Zambia, the study examines in the next section research studies on teaching practice in Zambia which relate to the current study that investigates the efficacy of teaching practice implemented by the University of Zambia.

2.7.2 Selected studies on teaching practice in Zambia

A review of studies on teaching practice is conducted in order to deepen our understanding of the issues and how the current study fits into the broad area of

teaching practice. Studies on teaching practice in Zambia have been limited even though teaching practice has been said to be very important in the training of a teacher (see Leshem & Bar-Hama, 2008:257; Rosemary et al., 2013:126; Manyasi, 2014:52). There are only a few known studies that have attempted to research teaching practice in Zambia such as the one conducted by Musonda (1999). However, none of them have investigated the issues raised in this study. For example, whereas Musonda's (1999) study examined teacher education in Zambia, no aspect focusing on teaching practice was investigated. For this reason, only research studies that have a significant bearing on this study have been selected for review and analysis.

Following a rigorous search for studies on teaching practice, four research studies have been identified and found relevant to the current study. These studies, which are arranged chronologically, are as follows: Moyo (1980), Masaiti and Manchishi (2011), Manchishi and Mwanza (2013) and Simuyaba et al. (2015). What follows is an examination of each of these studies.

2.7.2.1 Pre-service primary teacher education in Zambia by Moyo (1980)

Moyo's (1980) study on the teaching practice component of pre-service primary teacher education in Zambia appears to be the earliest one. Though the study focused on primary teacher education in Zambia, it has some relevance to the present study which focuses on secondary teacher education. The study was aimed at identifying the specific characteristics of the selected dimensions of the teaching practice component in primary teacher education in Zambia, and on the basis of the findings, make possible recommendations for an appropriate pattern for primary teacher education teaching practice provision and organisation in Zambia.

Of particular relevance to the current study is Moyo's (1980) objective that aimed at investigating the organisation and administration of teaching practice in colleges and associated schools. However, in this study, the main objective is to establish the effectiveness of teaching practice as conducted by the University of Zambia. As reported earlier, the University of Zambia trains teachers for the secondary and primary school sectors, during which training the teaching practice component is compulsory.

This study will not only identify the pre-practice instruction in teaching practice but it will also assess the whole process of teaching practice. The main difference between Moyo's and the current study is the depth of investigation of teaching practice. Moyo's study ends at identifying the components of the pre-practice instruction of teaching practice. The pre-practice instructions according to Moyo (1980:16) refer to basic teaching skills which students should acquire before they go on teaching practice, to enable them to do well on teaching practice. He explains that usually student teachers are introduced to basic teaching skills during the pre-practice instruction phase. The pre-practice instruction phase is a transitional period to teaching practice.

The other objective of Moyo's study was to establish how student performance was evaluated. The current study, however, differs from Moyo's in that the focus is not directly on the performance of the student teacher but on the effectiveness of the process itself.

2.7.2.2 Pre-service teacher education programme responsiveness to schools and communities by Masaiti and Manchishi (2011)

In a second study, Masaiti and Manchishi (2011) examine the University of Zambia's (UNZA) pre-service teacher education programme's responsiveness to the aspirations of schools and communities. The objectives of the study were to describe what trainee teachers at the UNZA were taught, to provide an account of how trainee teachers were being prepared for teaching in schools, and to determine views of former University of Zambia graduate teachers on the institution's teacher education programme.

The research study envisaged that the findings would be useful to the UNZA, and in particular the School of Education, as it would be used to review the programme if the need arose. Like the current study, Masaiti and Manchishi's (2011) study was purely qualitative and was a case study. The study used face to face interviews and focus group discussions as methods of data collection.

The objective on views of former University of Zambia graduate teachers on the institution's teacher education programme is the most relevant to this study. However, neither the objective nor the research question indicates explicitly that the

focus is on establishing the effectiveness of teaching practice. This can be confirmed by the fact that the focus of the views gathered on the pre-service teacher education programme was on the various teaching competencies, namely subject, didactic, social, adaptive and developmental and professional ethics competencies.

The study concluded that the subject content UNZA trainee teachers were taught was broad and deeper than what was being offered in high schools. In short, the content offered was more advanced than what was contained in the school curriculum. However, in terms of didactic competency, the study revealed that UNZA trainee teachers were unable to handle high school subject matter as they were not adequately prepared for the task. The reason for this inadequacy was that during the training period, little time was allocated to didactic courses and activities. Similarly, UNZA trainee teachers were rated poorly on other competencies, namely social, adaptive and developmental and professional ethics competences.

There are many areas of divergence between Masaiti and Manchishi's (2011) study on one hand and the current study on the other. The former study collected views from the UNZA graduate high school teachers, school head teachers and community representatives. However, the current study is aimed at collecting views from three key stakeholders, namely teacher educators, supervising teachers and student teachers. As it will be demonstrated later, this triad plays a very critical role in teaching practice. The inclusion of the main players such as these will allow for a more comprehensive analysis of teaching practice as conducted by the University of Zambia.

It must be mentioned that Masaiti and Manchishi's (2011) study wanted to establish whether the pre-service teacher training programme offered at UNZA was responding to the needs and aspirations of schools and communities. The current study however aims to determine the effectiveness of teaching practice at UNZA.

2.7.2.3 University of Zambia school teaching practice by Manchishi and Mwanza (2013)

The third study on teacher education was conducted by Manchishi and Mwanza (2013:62) who assert that there had previously been no comprehensive study on UNZA school teaching practice. They concluded, therefore, that it was difficult to

establish the effectiveness of school teaching experience. The study intended, among other objectives, to establish student teachers' expectations of school experience, whether the instruction, including content and methodology that student teachers receive from UNZA, was adequate to prepare them for the school experience, and what challenges they faced in the design and delivery of the school experience.

With specific reference to the research design, the number of student teachers who took part in the study is not mentioned at all and yet the objectives sought to establish the student teachers' expectations from the school experience supervisors and from cooperating schools. Under the research design, Standard Officers and District Education Board Secretary have been described as part of the sample, yet there is no objective that clearly incorporates them in the study at all.

With regard to the discussion of the findings, there appears to be a major shift in thought as well as presentation. The focus is on what student teachers expected from student teaching experience, the UNZA lecturers and cooperating schools. However, for unexplained reasons, student views were conspicuously missing from the findings and the views given were those of the UNZA lecturers.

One of the objectives of the study was to establish the adequacy of content and methodology taught at the UNZA. Though students are part of the main players in teaching practice as they try to put into practice what they have learned during their training, it would have been more prudent to allow teacher educators and supervising teachers to contribute their views on this matter. This is because both are not only experienced and knowledgeable about teaching practice, they are also the ones who assess the performance of student teachers on teaching practice.

On the challenges facing teaching practice, the study is also not clear about who the respondents were. What is presented are responses that cannot be attributed to any specific respondents. It should be mentioned that lack of clarity in the source of information raises a number of questions. It is clear that the study was aimed at establishing the effectiveness of teaching practice; however, there is no specific group that is mentioned to have responded to this important research question even though data is presented to the reader. As for the current study, it attempts to

establish the effectiveness of teaching practice by studying the various components of teaching practice which include demonstrations, peer teaching and the actual teaching practice in schools. A comprehensive study of the various components of the process of teaching practice will help us understand it better and subsequently inform practice.

2.7.2.4 Theory against practice: Training teachers in a vacuum by Simuyaba, Banda, Mweemba and Muleya (2015)

The final study on teaching practice in Zambia was conducted by Simuyaba et al. (2015). Two of the objectives of this study were: to establish the head teacher/mentor teachers' perceptions doing the practicum, and to ascertain the head teachers' views on pedagogical issues of student teachers who were on school experience.

The study's population comprised the administrators and supervising teachers of student teachers in the sampled schools. The views of the other main players, namely the teacher educators and the student teachers were not included as they did not form part of the population. In this regard, the study does not give a balanced view of the effectiveness of teaching practice or lack of it. It is possible that if student teachers were given a chance to share their experiences of teaching practice they could have accounted for their perceived failures in a much more rational way.

In short, the composition of the sample was inadequate and to some extent biased. The study should have investigated the training component of teacher education for student teachers. It is also quite probable that UNZA as a teacher training institution could be failing to equip trainee teachers with essential teaching skills. In the researcher's view, the theory-practice gap among student teachers could be reduced if the training of student teachers was effective from the start. Further, the researchers should have attempted to solicit suggestions on how the widening gap between theory and practice among student teachers on teaching practice could be addressed. The researchers could have also probed the opinion of former UNZA students who have now become the administrators and mentors of student teachers on whether the current situation is different from the one they had experienced while they were on training.

The problem of teaching methodology should have been probed further. The study does not explain clearly the deficiencies in the teaching methodologies exhibited by student teachers from UNZA. Failing to give specific deficiencies in the teaching methodologies means that the study is of little value to either academics or researchers. After all, the central purpose of teaching practice is to learn how to teach effectively. It is also worth noting that the study did not make any attempt to state the root causes of failure by student teachers to perform effectively during teaching practice. Finally, the conclusions of the study do not in any way link or refer to any of the objectives of the study.

To sum up, although all four of the studies in Zambia have different focus areas, they have one thing in common: they all fall under teacher education in general and teaching practice in particular. In addition, all of these studies focus on different aspects of teaching practice. For example, Manchishi and Mwanza (2013) study's major focus is on student teachers' expectations of teaching practice, teacher educators and supervising teachers, while the study by Simuyaba et al. (2015) investigates the views of mentors and head teachers on the performance of student teachers on teaching practice. Finally, while Moyo's (1980) study examined how teaching practice was organised and administered in the colleges and associated schools, Masaiti and Manchishi's (2011) study was aimed at establishing the UNZA pre-school teacher programmes' responsiveness to the aspirations of schools and communities. None of these studies directly investigated the efficacy of teaching practice at the UNZA. Based on the foregoing, it is appropriate to fill the void by examining the whole process of teaching practice rather than just one component.

Having examined the studies on teaching practice in Zambia which have not only helped to sharpen the focus of this study but also to identify the gaps in the literature reviewed so far, the next section discusses the role of the teaching practice triad.

2.8 THE ROLE OF THE TRIAD IN TEACHING PRACTICE

Sulistiyo, Mukminin, Abdurrahman and Haryanto (2017:723) underscore the important role played by the teaching practice triad when they state that the success of the teaching practice programme depends on them. The first subsection examines the role of supervising teachers in teaching practice.

2.8.1 Role of the supervising teacher

Guidance is required in both pedagogical and content knowledge, for which both the teacher educator and supervising teacher are responsible. However, it has been widely documented that there is a lack of clarity in the roles that teacher educators and supervising teachers are expected to play in the teaching practice programme (Jeanne, 2009:89; Zhang, Cown, Hayes, Werry, Barnes, France & TeHau-Grant, 2015:147). Lack of clarity can negatively affect the preparation and implementation of teaching practice in secondary schools and has led Wasley (2002:30) to speculate that supervising teachers are generally not prepared to undertake the task of supervising teaching practice.

Lind (2004:27) adds that supervising teachers fail to supervise student teachers mainly because they are not trained to perform this kind of task. In spite of the role confusion between teacher educators and supervising teachers, the roles that the supervising teachers are expected to play in teaching practice can be derived from the perceptions of both the supervising teachers themselves and other people.

Clarke, Triggs and Nielsen (2014:165) acknowledge the important role that supervising teachers play in teacher education, just as many studies have documented their important role in teaching practice (Altan & Saglamel, 2015:3). According to Gujjar, Ramzan and Bajwa (2011:305) a supervising teacher plays many roles during teaching practice, which include being a resource person, an interpreter of feedback and an adviser. For this reason, it is important that they be prepared for this role so that their guidance to student teachers is in line with the teaching practice programme (Mokoena, 2017:125; Roofe & Cook, 2017:37).

Student teachers have equally acknowledged the important role that supervising teachers play in teaching practice. They explain that supervising teachers help in the development of student teachers' teaching skills, knowledge of subject matter and positive attitudes. In addition, following many years of teaching, supervising teachers acquire expertise and competencies to "help student teachers interpret and improve on their teaching experiences and skills" (Lefoka, 1994:9).

To emphasise the contribution that supervising teachers make to teaching practice, Zulu (2015:53) outlines some of their roles. First, supervising teachers attend to the immediate needs of the student teachers upon their arrival at the school for teaching practice. They help student teachers to settle quickly in their new 'role' as teachers. For example, a supervising teacher introduces a student teacher to the school staff and ensures that information on teaching allocations and timetables is readily available to the student teacher. Second, the supervising teacher guides the student teachers to prepare for teaching and management of the classroom. As is acknowledged, issues relating to the preparation of lessons, teaching strategies and management of pupils are critical to the training of student teachers on teaching practice. Third, student teachers are also monitored, guided and advised on the various aspects of teaching by the supervising teachers. In addition, the supervising teacher acts as a link between the student teacher and teacher educators on matters affecting the former. The link helps in the development of student teachers' professional skills and attitude as well as in providing information on their performance (Zulu, 2015:53).

Due to the supervising teacher's crucial role in providing feedback on student teachers' performance, Lind (2004:29) and Clarke et al. (2014:176) observe that supervising teachers are "gate keepers" of the profession because they can either pass or fail a student teacher in teaching practice. This means that if a candidate fails teaching practice, he/she cannot enter the teaching profession. Surprisingly, there has been limited research on student teacher evaluation in spite of the value of this component of teacher education (Clarke et al., 2014:176). Having presented the supervising teachers' role in teaching practice, the next section focuses on the role that the teacher educators play in teaching practice.

2.8.2 Role of the teacher educator

Although studies aimed at understanding teaching practice from the perspectives of the triad are commonly available, research focusing on the teacher educator is scanty (Meegan, Dunning, Belton & Woods, 2013:200; Paulsen, Smalley & Retallick, 2016:33). Valencia, Martin, Place and Grossman (2009:335) add that instead of investigating the perspectives of the teaching practice triad, most studies concentrate only on one or two members of the triad. This deprives the studies from

having a comprehensive picture of the aspects being investigated. Meegan et al. (2013:201) describe the role of the teacher educator as “multi-faceted and complex” while the teacher educators describe their role as one of networking, creating important professional partnerships and relationships between the university and the schools (McDonald, 2014:1).

The primary responsibility of the teacher educator in teaching practice is to plan and evaluate the student teacher experiences (Valencia et al., 2009:308). Prior to the implementation of teaching practice, the teacher educator is expected to impart the necessary knowledge and skills to the student teachers to help them understand the practical nature of teaching in a classroom. For this reason, teacher educators are better placed to assist student teachers to link the “university-based content and the practical knowledge of teaching” (Cuenca, Schmeichel, Butler, Dinkelman & Nichols, 2011:1068; Allen et al., 2013:122). In addition, when student teachers are on teaching practice, the teacher educator is expected to monitor and evaluate the student teachers.

When teaching practice is being implemented, many student teachers and newly qualified teachers may not have developed adequate teaching skills. For this reason, it is important for teacher educators to supervise teaching practice in a classroom (Mpofu, 2007:1). This places the teacher educator in the role of a mentor. The teacher educator ensures that through his/her guidance and support, the student teacher implements the new reforms, if any, including the correct interpretation and implementation of the teaching and learning theories (Asplin & Marks, 2013:n.p).

The teacher educators are also expected to give emotional support to student teachers so that they can fit into the new teaching and learning environment (Caires & Almeida, 2005:114; Caires, Almeida & Martins, 2010:17). The need for emotional support to the student teachers is very important as student teachers face a lot of challenges which include continuous attempts to understand the school culture, “rules and communication patterns in order to gradually integrate into the school ethos” (Caires et al., 2012:164). Giving emotional support will work well once the teacher educator has established a good working relationship between the university and the school. Thus, establishing a good working relationship is yet another role

performed by the teacher educator (Meegan et al., 2013:201), which can influence the implementation of teaching practice.

As is the case with the supervising teachers, the teacher educator is also expected to be an evaluator and “gate keeper” (Meegan et al., 2013:201). When the teacher educator visits student teachers on teaching practice, he/she evaluates their performance. As a gate keeper, the teacher educator regulates student teachers’ entry into the teaching profession. For example, those who pass teaching practice join the profession, while those who fail are not allowed to work in schools as qualified and certified teachers.

Sulistiyo et al. (2017:719) have identified four important roles that the teacher educator must play in the teaching practice programme. One role is to collaborate with school administrators and supervising teachers where student teachers have been assigned to do teaching practice. Another role is to ensure that the student teacher prepares teaching aids adequately before the latter goes to teach pupils in the classroom. In addition, the teacher educator supervises and evaluates the student teacher. The final role is that the teacher educator ensures that the student teacher is given a final grade for teaching practice.

2.8.3 Role of the student teacher

One major task of the student teacher is to put the theory learned at college or university into practice in a classroom. In fact, during teaching practice, the main focus is on the student teacher. Because teaching practice is so important, it should be organised in such a way that trainee teachers can continuously learn new knowledge and skills and develop professionally (Owusu & Brown, 2014:25). It is in view of this that the training of teachers is considered incomplete if a student teacher does not do teaching practice. Consequently, the student teacher is expected to take on the role of teacher. He/she is required to teach pupils following the recommended syllabus. It is during this period that the student teacher has to translate theory into practice. The student teacher is also expected, among other duties, to prepare lesson plans, prepare tests, interact with both school staff and pupils, attend departmental and school meetings, counsel pupils and take part in co-curricular

activities. It is on the basis of practising how to teach and taking part in related school activities that the student teacher is evaluated.

As earlier mentioned student teachers are supervised and evaluated by teacher educators and supervising teachers. Supervision and evaluation are important aspects of teaching practice. They help to determine the extent to which the student teachers are achieving the objectives of the teaching practice programme. Similarly, through the evaluation and supervision of student teachers, the extent of success or failure in the implementation of the teaching practice programme can be established. In light of the value attached to evaluation and supervision, the next section discusses these two aspects in relation to the teaching practice programme.

2.9 EVALUATION AND SUPERVISION OF TEACHING PRACTICE

It must be emphasised that the success of teacher preparation programmes and teaching success are closely related. Therefore, evaluation of teacher education programmes should give considerable attention to the student teaching practice, which is the most essential and beneficial component of any teacher preparation programme (Alhwiti, 2007:3). It is also important for both teacher educators and supervising teachers to have the knowledge and skills of how student teachers should be evaluated. Evaluation is about assessing the worth and effectiveness of a programme including those that are involved in its execution. The main objective of the evaluation is to bring prospective teachers' teaching skills and personality in line with the effective behaviours detailed in the literature and endorsed by teacher educators (Alhwiti, 2007:36).

Alhwiti (2007:36) has described the evaluation of teaching practice by student teachers as critical to the preparation of teachers. He describes evaluation as an important feature of student teaching because it contributes significantly to the professional development of future teachers. In this regard, the main purpose of evaluation is to determine whether or not the teaching strategies being employed are achieving the intended results. Evaluation provides an opportunity to the student teacher to understand his/her teaching performance (Maphosa & Ndamba, 2012:77). Coimbra (2013:65) considers evaluation and supervision as essential elements of teaching practice. According to Coimbra (2013:65), effective supervision promotes

the professional development of student teachers, improves the management of teaching practice and enhances the learning and success of student teachers.

Wang and Odell (2002:482) articulate three perspectives regarding supervision, namely the humanistic perspective, the situated apprentice perspective and the critical-constructivist perspective. According to Caires et al. (2012:165), the supervisory role played by the teacher educators and supervising teachers is important in the “socialisation process of student teachers and on their learning and professional development as well as their emotional and physical balance”. Owusu and Brown (2014:25) observe that, when it is effectively executed, supervision of student teachers on teaching practice can enhance the quality of student teacher training.

Youngs and Bird (2010:187) and Diamonti and Diamonti (1975:27) have acknowledged the fact that teacher supervision is an important element of the student teacher’s training. With this understanding, Diamonti and Diamonti (1975:27) made two observations. The first observation is that both teacher educators and supervising teachers have the responsibility to help student teachers to put the theory they have learned at university into practice in a classroom. The second observation is that both the teacher educators and the supervising teachers are required to ascertain whether student teachers are able to put into practice the qualities believed to be essential for good teaching. Diamonti and Diamonti (1975:27) point out that supervision more often than not does not live up to these expectations due to a number of reasons. For example, Ong’ondo and Borg (2011:520) observe that one impact of supervision on student teachers during teaching practice is fear due to lack of knowledge of what the teacher educators might be looking for. But the same fear is considered helpful to student teachers in that it causes them to remain alert all the time. It is, therefore, important in this study to examine aspects of evaluation and supervision of the teaching practice implemented by the University of Zambia.

Butler (2001:258) explains the daunting task that teacher educators face in readying pre-service teachers to function successfully. He points out that this task is compounded by the fact that teacher education programmes must operate within constraints imposed by outside forces, such as limited time with students, state-

mandated requirements, and limited manpower. Given that the nature of the student teacher supervision triad remains static, Rodgers and Keil (2007:63) implore teacher trainers to transform student teaching experience in general and the supervision structure in particular to bring them into line with contemporary theories on supervision.

In the foregoing section, the value of evaluation and supervision in relation to teaching has been highlighted. The next section examines past research on the views of the triad on the effectiveness of teaching practice.

2.10 THE TRIAD ON THE EFFECTIVENESS OF TEACHING PRACTICE

This section discusses literature on the triad's views of the effectiveness of teaching practice. It must, however, be noted that most of the studies on teaching practice have tended to concentrate on aspects of how a student teacher conducts a lesson in a real classroom situation. Such studies have tended to ignore other aspects of teaching practice such as demonstration lessons, peer teaching and student involvement in school extra-curricular activities. The views on the effectiveness of teaching practice can therefore, be expected to be varied. For example, studies in Turkey have had different areas of focus that include reflection on the teaching experiences (e.g., Akcan, 2016), and feedback received (e.g. Akcan & Tatar, 2010; Celen & Akcan, 2017:252). In this regard, the research reviewed in this study also reflects a similar position.

2.10.1 The task of student teachers

Teaching practice is conducted for the purpose of giving student teachers the opportunity to have hands-on experience with the realities of teaching in schools (Lawson et al., 2015:393). It is after student teachers have been trained, that they are allowed to go to schools to teach. According to Worthy (2005:393), teaching practice for student teachers “complements the university-based aspects in that prospective teachers take part directly in the actual experience of teaching and the challenges of the real classroom environment”.

Poulou (2007:91) confirms that there is widespread agreement that investigating student teachers' beliefs, experiences, attitudes and concerns are important as they

provide insights to teacher educators for the improvement of teacher preparation programmes. In this regard, the presentation of student teachers' views about the effectiveness of teaching practice is logical and valid as it helps us to improve our understanding of this component of teacher education.

In a study conducted by Smith and Lev-Ari (2005:295), in which they investigated the views of student teachers in Israel on the importance of teaching practice, students rated it highly and described it as the main source of most aspects of teachers' professional knowledge. The findings revealed that 91% of the student teachers found teaching practice very useful in the preparation for teaching. Student teachers were reported to be satisfied with the time they spent in school. In addition, above 60% of the student teachers were satisfied with the feedback that they received in the process of searching for improvement. Further, more than half of the student teachers perceived teaching practice as an opportunity to turn theory into practice.

Hascher et al. (2004:635) also conducted a similar study aimed at evaluating the experiences of the student teachers of teaching practice. They concluded that most of the student teachers had declared that they had been confronted primarily with theoretical aspects while on training, whereas the learning of practical things was foremost during teaching practice. They expressed satisfaction with the manner the teaching practice had been conducted. Mannathoko (2013:115), Koross (2016:81), and Kaldi and Xafakos (2017:246) add that student teachers view teaching practice as an important aspect of their preparation for the teaching profession because it provides them with teaching skills.

2.10.2 The task of supervising teachers

Often supervising teachers criticise teaching practice, claiming that it is inadequate. To that effect, El Kadri and Roth (2015:4) have identified several weaknesses in the teaching practice programme. First, they explain that supervising teachers feel uncomfortable being observed by student teachers and consider it a disruptive exercise. Second, supervising teachers complain about extra work arising from the supervision during teaching practice. In light of this, supervising teachers find it hard to embrace fully the task of training teachers. In addition, supervising teachers hold the view that student teachers have little to offer to the improvement of teaching and

professional development. This kind of attitude among supervising teachers may be detrimental to the training of student teachers.

Similar sentiments of dissatisfaction about how the teaching practice is implemented have been expressed by other scholars. For example, Al-Momani (2016:49) investigated challenges of teaching practice at a faculty of education from the supervisors' perspective. Al-Momani (2016:49) noted that student teachers appeared unprepared to teach due to a mismatch between the university course and the school subject content. This mismatch in content seemed to present problems to student teachers to crystallise what they had learned in the classroom. Teaching practice is also rendered ineffective due its short duration (Simuyaba et al., 2015:92). Further, student teachers fail to use teaching aids effectively and this does little to bridge the gap between theory and practice.

In a related development, Ong'ondo and Borg (2011) investigated the influence of supervision on the teaching practice of English language student teachers in Kenya. Relying on the perspectives of supervising teachers, Ong'ondo and Borg (2011:515) explain that the effectiveness of teaching practice hangs in the balance because supervision is hurriedly done because of the large number of student teachers on teaching practice. In addition, time appeared to have been a limiting factor in this exercise. Another weakness noted in the supervision of student teachers was that some student teachers were being observed by supervising teachers and/or teacher educators who were not subject specialists. Furthermore, quite often teacher educators and supervising teachers did not have time to discuss the performance of the student teachers at the end of the lesson.

2.10.3 The task of teacher educators

Teacher educators' views on the effectiveness of teaching practice have been overshadowed by those of student teachers and supervising teachers. This is mainly because most of the studies investigate the views of student teachers and supervising teachers. For example, in a review of 114 studies on teaching practice for the period between 2000 and 2012, Lawson et al. (2015:396) reports that only two studies investigated specifically university-based teacher educators.

Similarly, Jekayinfa, Yahaya, Yusuf, Ajidagba, Oniye, Oniyangi and Ibraheem (2012:79) report that few studies have focused on the teacher educators' assessment of the quality of teaching practice. A commonly held view is that there is a gap between what student teachers learn in university or college and how they put it into practice (Zeichner, 2010:91). Researchers and academics have blamed the inability of institutions to support the teaching practice programme on resource constraints (Hamman & Romano, 2009:2). In addition, some schools are unwilling to receive student teachers and to attend to their learning needs (El Kadri & Roth, 2015:2).

2.10.4 Concluding remarks on the effectiveness of teaching practice

Views of the triad on the effectiveness of teaching practice are widely varied. The variation can be attributed to the fact that studies on teaching practice tend to be narrow in focus. For example, a study may investigate only one aspect of teaching practice. The argument here is that teaching practice is not only about when the student teacher is teaching in class but stretches from the time he/she is training as a teacher until the end of teaching practice at a school. Therefore, it is the researcher's view that the teaching practice triad should be examined considering that teaching practice is essentially a process. Viewing teaching practice as a process has also been supported by Janssen, Westbroek and Doyle (2014:195).

The perspectives of teacher educators and supervising teachers were sought in one exploratory study focusing on general music teacher preparation. In this study, Valerio, Johnson, Brophy, Bond, Gault, Marshall and Abril (2012:9) identified conditions that facilitated or did not facilitate teaching practice. Among the facilitating conditions were learning theories and methods courses while conditions that did not facilitate included lack of preparation time and lack of funding. With these results, both teacher educators and supervising teachers recommended curriculum reorganisation, implying that teaching practice was not effective.

Similar views on the 'not-so-effective' teaching practices have been documented. Sulistiyo et al. (2017) conducted a study on the implementation of teaching practice in order to improve an English teacher education programme in Indonesia. The study identified weaknesses such as the duration and scheduling of teaching practice, and

a weak relationship between the university and schools (Sulistiyo et al., 2017:727). The weak relationship appears to have rendered teaching practice ineffective.

Celen and Akcan (2017:251) evaluated the English language teacher education teaching practice in Turkey and identified its strengths and weaknesses. The main weaknesses arose from the absence of teacher educators at teaching practising schools. It was established that teacher educators had fewer student teacher observations in schools and that there was little collaboration between teacher educators and supervising teachers. The dismal performance of teacher educators as supervising teachers as earlier noted, can be attributed to having too many student teachers to supervise.

Having considered the literature on the input of the triad members on the effectiveness of teaching practice in general, the study presents in the next section the most significant challenges that the teaching practice programme faces during its implementation.

2.11 MOST SIGNIFICANT CHALLENGES OF TEACHING PRACTICE

Despite the anticipated value of teaching practice for the teaching profession in general and student teachers in particular, it (teaching practice) faces many challenges. Mashava and Chingombe (2013:S137) observe that while many trainee teachers often find teaching practice effective and helpful, a few find it challenging and problematic. Most of the challenges highlighted here are from the perspectives of the triad – the teacher educators, supervising teachers and student teachers.

Although teaching practice provides a reliable and convenient platform for trying out management skills and reflective practice (Moore, 2003:31) student teachers are more pre-occupied with “procedural concerns and routine tasks” (McBee, 1998:56) instead of focusing on issues that can help improve practice (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1993:63). This concern has also been affirmed by Ong’ondo and Borg (2011:509) who explain that student teachers are more pre-occupied with pleasing their supervisors in return for a pass mark rather than devoting more time to “developing their pedagogical reasoning”.

In a study aimed at establishing concerns of student teachers during teaching practice in Malaysia, Goh and Mathews (2011:96) identified four themes that had 18 derived concerns. The four themes were classroom management and pupil discipline, institutional and personal adjustments, classroom teaching and pupil learning. Under classroom management and pupil discipline, Goh and Mathews (2011:96) explain that many students are not adequately prepared to manage unruly behaviour displayed by some pupils in a classroom. Maintaining discipline and handling classes, and transferring knowledge at the same time was also confirmed as the biggest challenge to the majority of the student teachers in a study conducted on teaching practice at the University of Namibia by Scott (2013:S155). In addition, personal adjustments from being a student teacher to being a teacher, was another serious concern expressed by the student teachers. For example, adjustment to the school environment was not an easy matter for student teachers. According to Caires et al. (2010:17), the vulnerability experienced during the transition from student to teacher “leads to the loss of a comfortable sense of familiarity with oneself”.

With regard to classroom teaching, student teachers experienced challenges such as the appropriate use of teaching methodology and strategies, organisation of teaching activities, management of time and availability of enough or suitable teaching aids. Finally, student teachers had challenges on how to attract pupils’ interest and attention and subsequently ensure that pupils understood the subject. Goh and Mathews (2011:101) recommend finding ways by which the theory learned at university can be combined with the practical reality of the classroom to help the student teachers ‘survive’ the teaching practice experience.

Chunmei and Chuanjun (2015:235) add that student teachers complain that they are not given many opportunities to teach and lack the experience to manage a class effectively. If student teachers are not availed of adequate opportunities to practise, they will not be able to practise adequately what they have learned at college or university. Chunmei and Chuanjun (2015:235) also reveal that student teachers find it difficult to “implement quality-oriented pedagogies promoted by the teacher education programme, and the prevailing school reform curriculum”.

Lack of collaboration between schools and universities is a great challenge to the implementation of teaching practice (Nguyen, 2015:169; Robinson, 2016:23). Some scholars have argued that collaboration is often weak and not effective between schools and universities (White, Bloomfield & Cornu, 2010:188; Zeichner, 2006:n.p.). In a study conducted by Mtika (2008:218), findings show little in the way of collaborative partnerships between the college and schools where student teachers conducted their teaching practice. Collaboration entails the involvement of both teacher educators and supervising teachers in the planning and implementation of the teaching practice programme in secondary schools. Since the 1980s, calls have been made for schools and universities to strengthen collaboration. This is mainly because of the benefits that come from collaboration between institutions. For example, collaboration can facilitate change and create conditions that can aid the personal transformation of the participants (Sharon & Esther, 2012:41). Smedley (2001:192) adds that apart from benefiting the teaching practice triad members, collaboration can enrich the link “between theory and practice” by providing information about latest methodologies that have been proven successful in schools. Conversely, the absence of a collaborative partnership can result in less or no support from the activity systems of the school and college and/or university (Mtika, 2008:218).

For collaboration to flourish, the people involved in teaching practice, namely teacher educators, supervising teachers and student teachers, must trust and respect each other. Trust and respect are important to the success of collaborative activities as Crawford, Roberts and Hickmann (2009:95) observe:

... schools and universities can come together as equal partners and work towards a simultaneous renewal of their joint responsibilities of creating educational systems of excellence.

As early as the 1990s, Zeichner (1992:301) noted that there was no clear link between teacher educators and supervising teachers while differences in the quality of mentoring and supervising between the two groups were prevalent. Additionally, the lack of collaboration has also led to a situation where supervising teachers are not certain about their role in teaching practice. Robinson (2016:19) acknowledges the lack of collaboration between schools and universities, mentioning that they do

not communicate about the goals and arrangements for teaching practice. To make matters worse, efforts to help supervising teachers to acquire proficiency in the supervisory work are inadequate.

Clarke et al. (2014:164) observe that failure to understand the role of supervising teachers could make it difficult to determine the support to be rendered to enhance their work in teaching practice. Role confusion among teacher educators, supervising teachers and student teachers has been cited as a challenge to the implementation of the teaching practice programme (Montecinos, Walker & Maldonado, 2015:1). Usually, schools and universities are not conversant with the roles that each one of them has to play while policies to support schools' involvement in the pre-service training of teachers are lacking (Southgate, Reynolds & Howley, 2013:20; Zeichner, 2012:379). Available research suggests that the role confusion during teaching practice is as a result of failure by teacher educators and supervising teachers to understand their role. The role confusion is continued due to unclear "definitions and expectations related to support, supervision and exploration" (Hamman & Romano, 2009:2). For collaboration to work, Jones et al. (2016:110) recommend that all of the participants in the planned activity should have a shared understanding of the role they are supposed to play.

Although many studies have been conducted on teaching practice, few of them have focused directly on the effectiveness of teaching practice in which practice is linked to theory (Hennissen, Beckers & Moerkerke, 2017:314). In order to have a better understanding of the theory-practice divide in teaching practice, this study intends to gather views of teacher educators, supervising teachers and student teachers about teaching practice in order to have a comprehensive perspective.

From the foregoing, it may be noted that although teaching practice is an important component of teacher education, its implementation faces many challenges. This is why Yan and He (2010:58) propose that it is worth investigating challenges facing teaching practice to enhance its effect on student teachers' professional growth and teacher education programmes. It may, therefore, be helpful to investigate the whole process of teaching practice rather than only the final part of teaching practice. In light of this, the next section provides highlights of the contribution that this study

hopes to make to the existing knowledge gap, in particular to the teaching practice conducted by the University of Zambia.

2.12 CONTRIBUTION OF THE CURRENT STUDY

Ong'ondo and Jwan (2009:516) report that research on teaching practice has slowly changed in focus since the 1960s. They explain that literature on teaching practice research in the last 20 years has broadened its scope, covering four related topics, namely, student teacher learning, collaboration among student teachers, collaboration between student teachers and supervising teachers and supervision of student teachers.

However, despite the increasing volume of information about the process of becoming a teacher, Caires et al. (2012:165) have observed that many questions have remained without answers. They explain that a thorough understanding of this process may not be attained because often “phenomenological and idiosyncratic aspects” of teaching practice are ignored by the researchers. The researchers ignore questions that would help to probe issues such as student teachers’ experiences of teaching practice, challenges and coping strategies in a new environment. This study aims at investigating some of the questions raised here.

Yan and He (2010:57) have also reported the lack of research on teaching practice in the developing world. They explain that although most student teachers have appreciated the contribution of teaching practice to learning how to teach, most of the research on teaching practice is mainly confined to general higher education programmes in the Western world. The lack of research on teaching practice in the developing world has also been documented by Mtika (2008:16) and Ong'ondo and Jwan (2009:522). In his study performed in Malawi, Mtika (2008:16) observes that most of the important issues about teachers in the developing world are rarely researched. Consequently, information about what happens during teaching practice is limited. If improvements in the conduct of teaching practice have to be made, it is imperative that researchers investigate the process of teaching practice in order to enhance understanding and make informed decisions. This is one contribution that this research aims to make.

Wainman (2011:5) adds that research on the supervising teacher in pre-service teaching practice is scanty. Therefore, the role and experiences of both teacher educators and supervising teachers in the teaching practice process need to be investigated in order to improve “our understanding and knowledge of what makes for optimal teaching practice experience” (Meegan et al., 2013:200) for the teacher educators, supervising teachers and student teachers. This study will contribute significantly to reducing the knowledge gap in this area.

From the foregoing, it is clear that many questions about teaching practice remain unanswered. This can be attributed to the lack of research on teaching practice in the developing world, which includes Zambia. The limited number of research studies on teaching practice has resulted in a weak knowledge base for ITE thereby posing a challenge to teacher educators who are called upon to provide evidence of the effectiveness of their programmes (Murray, Nuttal & Mitchell, 2007:235). Part of the focus of this study is to determine challenges that hinder the successful implementation of teaching practice in schools by the University of Zambia. Once the challenges have been determined, suggestions will be made as to how they can be addressed. The suggestions may help improve the implementation of teaching practice. The researcher’s view is that the continued study of teaching practice is very important because it will enhance not only teacher education programmes but also student teachers’ professional growth. This study investigated the effectiveness of teaching practice conducted by the UNZA from the perspectives of the teacher educators, supervising teachers and student teachers.

2.13 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

The literature review has brought out a number of salient issues. First, it has been noted that the origin and development of teacher education can be traced to the coming of the missionaries to Zambia (then Northern Rhodesia). Brief histories of teacher education and teaching practice both globally and locally have also been presented. In addition, it has outlined the different models of teaching practice. Of these models, the University of Zambia mainly shares characteristics of the Partnership model. The chapter has also presented the conduct of teaching practice in selected countries by highlighting the similarities and differences. The national

policy on education in Zambia, which has changed from time to time and has influenced the running of the education system, has also been dealt with.

The chapter has described the role of the teaching practice triad in the teaching practice programme. In this case, the teacher educator imparts the content knowledge and teaching skills to the student teacher who in turn translates what has been learned into practice under the guidance of the supervising teacher. In this triadic relationship both the teacher educator and the supervising teacher guide and evaluate the student teacher's work.

Further, the views of the triad on the effectiveness of teaching practice have also been highlighted. Their views are as diverse as the models of teaching practice. For example, whereas some scholars view teaching practice as useful in the development and growth of the student teacher, others claim that it has no benefit as the period of teaching practice is too short for success.

The value of evaluation and supervision in teaching practice has been underscored. Some challenges hindering the successful implementation of teaching practice have been presented also. As noted by many scholars, the theory-practice divide has persisted in the teaching practice programme. Some pertinent studies on teaching practice in Zambia which helped the researcher to identify the gaps in knowledge and subsequently sharpened the focus of the current study have also been discussed. The chapter has established that teaching practice is an important component of teacher education which should be investigated in order to contribute to the knowledge base. In this study, the teaching practice programme will be investigated from the perspectives of the triad.

Having dealt with the literature review, the next chapter examines the theoretical perspectives underpinning this study, which investigates the implementation of teaching practice by the University of Zambia in secondary schools. As stated in Chapter 1, the activity theory has been chosen for this purpose.

CHAPTER 3

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter reviewed the literature pertinent to this study. In this chapter, the theoretical framework of the study is presented. The theoretical framework underpinning this study is the activity theory, but with special reference to the third generation activity theory. The chapter is divided into four sections. The first section discusses the origin and development of the activity theory while the second section provides insight into the choice of the theory for the study. The third section describes the context of teaching practice, which is the main focus of the study, while the last section discusses how the current study is seen through the activity theory lens.

According to Kombo and Tromp (2009:56), a “theoretical framework is a collection of interrelated ideas based on theories”. Additionally, a theoretical framework attempts to clarify the nature of things based on theories. As indicated in Chapter 1, the theoretical framework that will best inform the investigation of the efficacy of teaching practice at the University of Zambia is the “activity theory model” as illustrated by Engeström (2001:134). The activity theory is usually referred to as the “cultural-historical activity theory (CHAT)” (Bakhurst, 2009:199; Nussbaumer, 2012:37; Bligh & Flood, 2017:129; Razak, Jalil, Krauss & Ahmad, 2018:17). This model of activity puts the individual and “goal-directed actions in the social context of an activity” (Hardman, 2008:70).

Nussbaumer (2012:37) reports that over the last 20 years, the use of activity theory in educational research has increased tremendously. For example, in a 2010 survey covering the period 2000 to 2009, Nussbaumer (2012:37) reveals that over 129 studies used the activity theory. In these studies, many perspectives focusing on factors such as educational policies, college and university level subjects were investigated. In the context of this study, teaching practice, which is one of the core subjects of teacher education at the University of Zambia, will be investigated.

The national policy on education in Zambia acknowledges the fact that the quality and effectiveness of an education system depends on the quality of its teachers

(Ministry of Education, 1996:107). This means that for this policy to be realised, teacher training institutions should ensure that quality education is provided to student teachers. One major component of teacher education which can contribute to quality education is teaching practice. The next two subsections discuss the origin and development of the activity theory respectively.

3.2 ORIGIN AND DEVELOPMENT OF THE ACTIVITY THEORY

This section focuses on the origin and development of the activity theory. In order to have a better understanding of the activity theory, Engeström's principles of the activity theory, key elements of the activity theory and contradictions in the cultural-historical activity theory are also discussed. The first subsection deals with the origin of the activity theory.

3.2.1 Origin of the activity theory

The activity theory claims its authority in its allegiance and development to Lev Vygotsky. Many scholars have described Vygotsky as the originator of the activity theory (Martin & Peim, 2009:131; Mwalongo, 2016:19). The roots of the activity theory can be traced to Vygotsky's cultural-historical psychology that "interpreted human activities as complex, socially situated phenomena" (Plakitsi, 2013:2; Portnov-Neeman & Barak, 2013:9; Thanh-Pham & Renshaw, 2015:49). This philosophy places emphasis on how ideas evolve over time and the active and constructive role that human beings play (Jonassen & Rohrer-Murphy, 1999:62), for example, in the implementation of teaching practice.

Apart from Vygotsky's ideas, the origin of activity theory includes other works by several Russian scholars (Kaptelinin & Nardi, 2006:174). There is a tendency among researchers using "Vygotskian lenses in an effort to understand activity to use the term 'sociocultural', while studies that follow Leont'ev use 'cultural-historical'" (Lee, 2011:419), which in some aspects varies from the initial Vygotskian approach (Kaptelinin, Kuutti & Bannon, 2005:2).

Kaptelinin and Nardi (2006:36) have affirmed that the difference between cultural-historical psychology and activity theory is so negligible that in recent times, the two approaches are sometimes collectively called "cultural-historical activity theory". (CHAT). CHAT is also considered as a subdivision of "sociocultural theory" (Plakitsi,

2013:1). Both CHAT and socio-cultural theory lay emphasis on development and learning that takes place in a social environment (Postholm, 2015:43). Daniels (2004:121) explains that both approaches “attempt to theorise and provide methodological tools for investigating the processes by which social, cultural and historical factors shape human functioning”.

However, the main difference lies in their emphasis. For example, while socio-cultural theory places emphasis on the mediated action, CHAT places emphasis on culture and history. As Postholm (2015:44) observes, in CHAT “local activities are linked to historical and culturally formed mediating artefacts”. In the context of this study, teaching practice as a joint local university–school activity is viewed from two main perspectives. These two perspectives are teaching practice as an interactive activity and a process. These two perspectives will be discussed later in this chapter under subsections 3.4.1 and 3.4.2 respectively. The next section describes the development of the activity theory.

3.2.2 Development of the activity theory

Apart from Vygotsky’s ideas, many other scholars have contributed to the growth of the activity theory. According to Nussbaumer (2012:37) and Razak et al. (2018:18), CHAT has experienced what is referred to as a “generational growth”. It has evolved through three generations. The first three sub-sections briefly explain the development of the three generations of the activity theory while the fourth and fifth subsections examine Engeström’s principles of the activity theory and key elements of the activity theory, respectively.

3.2.2.1 First generation activity theory

Apart from inaugurating the first generation, which was the original activity theory in the late 1920s, Vygotsky is also known to have established a “triangular mode of action” (Engeström & Miettinen, 1999:4). The “triangular mode” of action is often referred to as the “triad”. It consists of three elements, namely “subject, object, and mediating artefact” (Bakhurst, 2009:199). The artefacts mediate the interaction between an individual and an object (Hardman, 2008:68). Wilson (2014:22) explains that Vygotsky initiated the concept of mediation largely due to the shortcomings of

stimulus-response behaviourism. This means that human behaviour is mediated by artefacts which prompt action.

Figure 3.1 below presents the mediational model, that is, the first generation activity theory, which demonstrates the fact that individual efforts are important in nurturing our understanding of what can be done about human learning and development (Daniels, 2004:121). The triangle is a representation of the relationship between the subject and the tools whose interaction lead the subject “to act on the object of the activity” (Hardman, 2008:68). Postholm (2015:45) explains that the subject uses the tools in order to achieve the set objectives for the actions. Here is an illustration of the relationship between the elements represented in Figure 3.1 with specific reference to teaching practice. When the subjects (student teachers) are on teaching practice, they are learning how to teach. It is during this time that student teachers put theory they have learned at university into practice by teaching pupils. To achieve the object (objective), student teachers practise teaching with the help of tools (teaching aids). In this regard, lessons learned from teaching practice are important for future interventions.

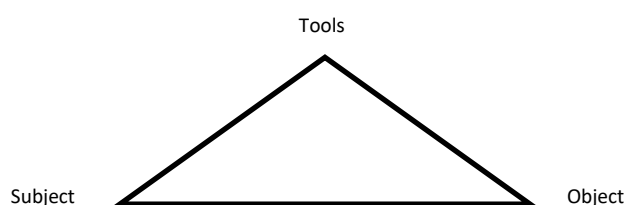


Figure 3.1 First generation activity theory's (Vygotskian) model of action (Hardman, 2008:68)

The first generation model of action, however, had a limitation. Engeström (2001:134) and Bloomfield and Nguyen (2015:28) explain that the limitation was that “the unit of analysis remained individually focused”. Vygotsky (Engeström, 2001:134) claimed that the person and society could not be comprehended in the absence of their cultural means and the “agency of individuals who use and produce artefacts” respectively. However, as will be explained in the next section, this limitation was overcome in the second generation activity theory proposed by Leont’ev (1978).

3.2.2.2 Second generation activity theory

The second-generation activity theory is said to have emerged on the basis of the work of Vygotsky's student, Alexei Leont'ev. Daniels (2004:123) explains that the activity theory continued to grow when the original triangular representation of the activity system by Engeström shown in Figure 3.1 was expanded. The expansion of the first generation activity theory culminated in the introduction of the second generation activity theory, which made examining systems of activity on a larger scale possible. According to Bloomfield and Nguyen (2015:28), the unit of analysis was enlarged from the "individual mediated action to a collective activity" (Sannino & Nocon, 2008:327; Portnov-Neeman & Barak, 2013:10). In this regard, the enlargement of the unit of analysis is one of the main differences between the first and second generation activity theories (Núñez, 2009:9).

Postholm (2015:45) explains that "in the collective activity system, human activity is structured and visualized by several triadic relations". This means that in an activity system such as a school, individuals play different roles in an activity for the purpose of achieving a set goal. In this study, teacher educators, supervising teachers and student teachers make up the triad for the teaching practice. These members of the triad, as observed in Chapter 2, play different but complementary roles in teaching practice. The roles that the trio play in teaching practice were articulated under subsections 2.8.1, 2.8.2 and 2.8.3 of Chapter 2. It was explained that teacher educators provide initial training in teaching to student teachers. The teacher educators impart knowledge and skills to student teachers to help them understand the practical nature of teaching in a classroom. In short, student teachers learn about teaching theory and skills as well as subject matter knowledge during training.

For the purpose of establishing their competences in teaching, student teachers are sent to schools to practise teaching. During this period, student teachers work under supervising teachers who guide, monitor and advise them on various aspects of teaching. As for the student teachers, their major role in teaching practice is to put the theory they learned at college or university into practice. The implication of the members of the teaching practice triad sharing roles in the implementation of teaching practice is that there is a division of labour among them; a feature that was introduced in the second generation activity theory. Each member of the triad makes

an important contribution to the implementation of teaching practice. Considering this important role of complementarity in the implementation of teaching practice, it is the researcher's considered position that the views of the teaching practice triad should be examined. Figure 3.2 below shows the second generation activity theory.

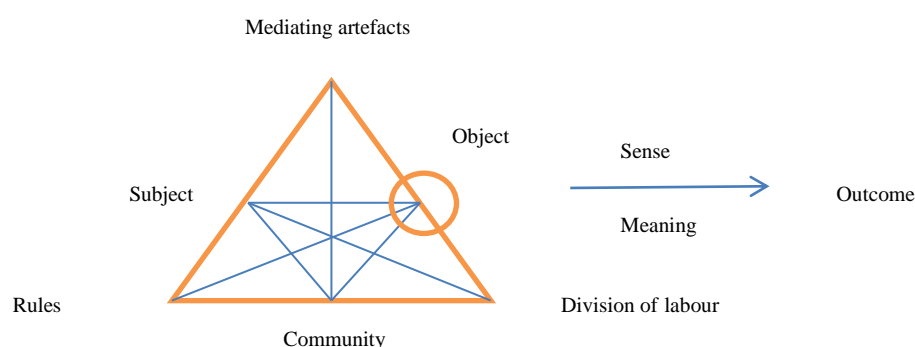


Figure 3.2: Second generation activity theory (Engeström, 1987, 1999 & 2001)

As can be seen in Figure 3.2, the second generation activity theory was expanded by two additional units of analysis, namely rules and division of labour. Rules refer to “norms and conventions” that a group of people sets up (Núñez, 2009:12). According to Arnseth (2008:293), rules are made over time (historically) and facilitate the “activity”. The rules are influenced by social factors and help determine the manner and cause of an individual’s action. According to Razak et al. (2018:18), Leont’ev’s (1978) work distinguishes between “action” and “activity”. An action is taken by an individual or group for the purpose of achieving a goal while “an activity involves a community with an ‘object’ and a ‘motive’ ” (Bakhurst, 2009:199). In this study, the teaching practice programme is an activity in which many people play different roles. In this regard, the division of labour ensures that tasks are distributed among workers (Hashim & Jones, 2007:n.p.; Postholm, 2015:45) in order to achieve the object. The next section focuses on the third generation activity theory.

3.2.2.3 Third generation activity theory

The third generation activity theory as proposed by Engeström (1987) is aimed at creating “conceptual tools to understand dialogues, multiple perspectives, and networks of interacting activity systems” (Daniels, 2004:123; Engeström, 2001:135; Greenhouse, 2013:406). Engeström draws on ideas on dialogicality and multi-voicedness to broaden the framework of the second generation activity theory

(Mudavanhu, 2014:54). According to Bloomfield and Nguyen (2015:30) and Westberry (2009:57), a joint activity system is used in the third generation of activity theory with at least “two activity systems” working together as the unit of analysis. The reason for enlarging the unit of analysis in the third generation activity theory was chiefly to cater for relationships concerning multiple “activity systems” (Sannino & Nocon, 2008:327). Figure 3.3 shows Engeström’s third generation activity theory in which two activity systems interact.

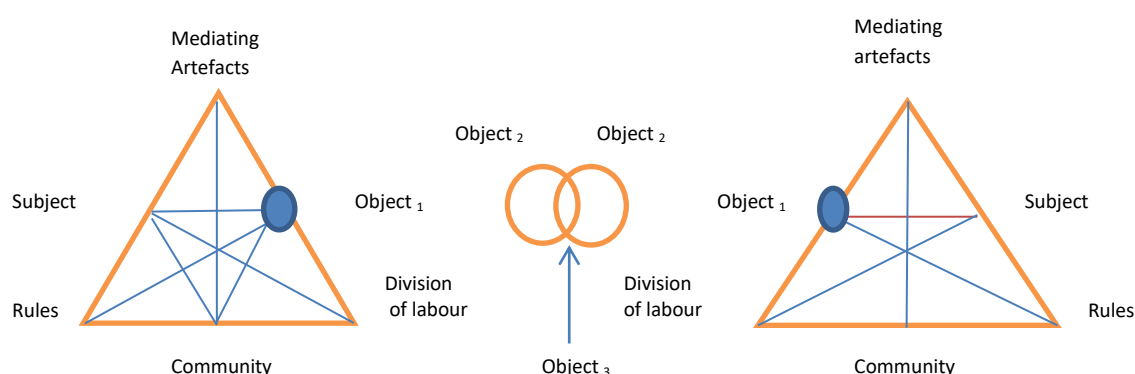


Figure 3.3: Two interacting activity systems as a minimal model for the third generation activity theory (Engeström, 2001:136)

As mentioned earlier, the activity theory has been expanding over the years. The expansion of the original Vygotskian triangle resulted in the introduction of three social/collective elements to the activity system (Daniels, 2004:123; Mwalongo, 2016:20). The elements were community, rules and the division of labour. The expansion took into account the social, cultural and historical contexts of an activity system. A major contributor to the third generation activity theory on which the current study is anchored is Engeström. For this reason, the next section provides more insight into Engeström’s five key principles that underpin the third generation activity theory (Bloomfield & Nguyen, 2015:30). This is followed by a presentation of the key elements of the activity theory.

3.2.3 Engeström’s principles of the activity theory

According to Avis (2009:158), Engeström came up with five principles of the activity theory. The principles are that:

- a collective, artefact-mediated and object-oriented activity system is the main unit of analysis (Engeström, 2001:136);
- activity systems are multi-voicedness. Since an activity system is a community, it is expected that people will have different views, traditions and interests (Engeström, 2001:136; Mudavanhu, 2014:57);
- activity systems take shape and get transformed over a long period of time. This is the principle that Engeström (2001:136) and Mudavanhu (2014:57) refer to as historicity;
- contradictions can be used as a basis for change and development; and
- activity systems may experience expansive transformation.

The first and second principles express the idea that an activity is implemented by different people with varying views (multi-voicedness). With regard to the first principle, teacher educators, supervising teachers and student teachers participate in the implementation of the teaching practice programme organised by the University of Zambia. Different people implement teaching practice collectively. As observed by Postholm (2015:45), in a “collective activity system, human activity is structured and shared by several triadic relations”, implying that the people involved perform different tasks in order to achieve a set objective. In this study, teaching practice is considered as “the main unit of analysis” (Engeström, 2001:136).

The second principle talks about the fact that in an activity such as teaching practice, teacher educators and supervising teachers may hold different views and feelings about how teaching practice should be implemented. This is because the participants in teaching practice belong to two different activity systems, that is the university and schools, whose rules could influence and regulate their view of the object of teaching practice in schools. In line with the second principle, therefore, participants in this study may have different views about how teaching practice is implemented by the University of Zambia.

It is also important to note that the actions of people sometimes bring about change in activity systems. In addition, activity systems such as the university and schools have a history and culture of their own. Linked to the principles of the activity theory are the key elements of the activity theory. What follows, is a description of the key elements and how they interact with each other in an activity system.

3.2.4 Key elements of the activity theory

An activity system comprises seven interacting elements or components. These components are “subject, object, tools, the division of labour, community, rules, and outcome” (Burnard & Younker, 2008; Mudavanhu, 2016:211). Engeström considered these elements as very important to human activity (Song & Kim, 2016:136). These elements help researchers to analyse the complexity of the case under study. According to Mtika (2008:71), the researcher is able to identify tools that mediate the interactions between the subject and object of the activity during observations and interviews.

Wilson’s (2014:22) description of “these components within the context of a specific example” is as follows:

- Subject: The focus of analysis in an activity system is an individual or group of individuals and is denoted as the subject.
- Object: An *object* is a goal or motive of the activity system as a whole. In the case of a school, the goal may be to improve pupils’ performance. Within CHAT, the concept of the object “is the objective of the activity as understood by the person working on it” (Gunn, Hill, Berg & Haigh, 2016:311).
- Both the *subject* and the *object* are affected by activity theory elements such as mediating *tools* and the *rules* within the system. Mtika (2008:71) adds that tools affect the extent to which the subject and object relate to each other.

To deepen our understanding of the components used in activity theory, the researcher borrows Wilson’s (2014:23) illustration of a new learning strategy in class. To improve pupils’ performance (object), a class teacher (subject) will employ a new strategy for learning (tool). The success or failure of this initiative will depend on the division of labour within the school. For example, when a strategy meets the expectation of the management structure, it will be supported, while a strategy not in line with the school norms (rules) will be rejected.

Teacher educators endeavour to impart new knowledge and skills to student teachers as they prepare them for teaching practice in schools. During teaching practice, student teachers are expected to practise what they have learned during training. However, student teachers may not perform as expected if, for example,

they are given a heavy teaching load i.e. too many teaching periods to teach. In addition, if the student teachers use teaching strategies that are unfamiliar to supervising teachers, the latter are at liberty to accept or reject their use in class. Their decision will be based partly on whether such teaching strategies conform to the established school rules or not. In the end, the decision may influence both supervising and student teachers' views about teaching practice. Wilson (2014:23) concludes that if the newly introduced strategy for learning yields some positive result, it may become a rule in the school and other teachers may be compelled to implement it. This change is possible because activity systems allow elements within the system to change over time.

Another feature added to the third generation activity theory was that "activity systems had networks of interacting systems to deal with tensions and contradictions that encourage collective learning through change" (Engeström, 2001:137). One of the roles played by contradictions within and between activity systems is that they bring about change and innovation.

Having discussed the main elements of the activity theory, the study discusses in the next section the contradictions of the cultural-historical activity theory.

3.2.5 Contradictions of the cultural-historical activity theory (CHAT)

Contradictions refer to dilemmas and disturbances or any obstacles that may interfere with an activity. Engeström (1999:381) believes that contradiction is a motivator for change. The contradictions occur due to the fact that the activity systems are neither stable nor harmonious systems (Yamagata-Lynch, 2003:102). This contributes to the dynamic nature of the Engeström's triangle in the activity system (Roth, 2004:5). Earlier, in subsection 3.2.2.3, two triangles that represented two interacting activity systems were shown in Figure 3.3. In line with this study, the left and right triangles represented the university and schools as activity systems respectively (Bloomfield & Nguyen, 2015:31). In each activity system, the subjects are influenced and regulated by their own rules. In addition, the object of the subjects of an activity system may be different from the other. For example, while the object of the university is to produce quality teachers, the object of the school is to train a teacher to fit into the "prescribed system of schools" (Bloomfield & Nguyen, 2015:31). In view of this, it is likely that while the teaching practice programme is

being implemented in schools, contradictions within and between activity systems may be experienced (Lim, Tay & Herberg, 2011:324).

Kaptelinin and Nardi (2012:35) have outlined Engeström's four types of contradictions. The first type is about contradictions that may occur in any of the elements in an activity system while the second is when elements in an activity system experience contradictions between themselves. The third type is when contradictions occur "between the existing forms of an activity system and its potential, more advanced object and outcome" (Kaptelinin & Nardi, 2012:35). The fourth type occurs when an activity system and other activity systems that are pursuing the same outcome experience a contradiction.

For Engeström, contradiction plays an important role in the development of activity systems as a mechanism develops which helps in the transformation over time. Murphy and Rodriguez-Manzanares (2007:122) explain that the basic value of identifying contradictions is that they unlock the potential for change in the way an activity is conducted. This is because when contradictions in an activity system are analysed, they become a potential source of learning (Avis, 2009:160).

In light of this, contradictions are not considered as obstacles or threats to the achievement of set goals. According to Engeström (2001:137) contradictions can play a pivotal role as "sources of change and development". For example, when contradictions are discovered in the activity system, both practitioners and administrators can work together to establish the sources of problems and find ways of addressing them. Despite being an important issue in research and practice worldwide, contradictions in teaching practice have rarely been given serious attention in terms of research (Chunmei & Chuanjun, 2015:226). In line with this view, the researcher supports the proposal by Yamagata-Lynch and Haudenschild (2009:509) that future research should make use of the third generation activity theory because of its "interventionist nature" in a bid to find solutions to educational problems such as the theory-practice divide in teaching practice.

Studies that have been conducted in different countries have shown the contradictions that exist in the work that schools and universities do in relation to teacher education of which teaching practice is a critical component (Jeanne, 2009:89; Masaiti & Manchishi, 2011; Zhang, et al., 2015:147; Montecinos et al.,

2015:1). The contradictions may occur between schools and university which bring about conflicts among the people (Mudavanhu, 2014:55). These contradictions take place because each activity is linked to other related activities. During the implementation of these activities, participants in the interacting activity systems may come into conflict with each other. In order to resolve such conflicts, “a dialogic process” is essential to reconstitute the object and produce a new shared object (Avis, 2009:157). A well-managed dialogic process, therefore, could result in learning and transformation of the participants as well as the conduct of the activity such as teaching practice. In light of the foregoing, it is hoped that this study might discover contradictions in the implementation of teaching practice by the University of Zambia and secondary school activity systems and suggest solutions to address them.

Having discussed the development of the activity theory and highlighted the contradictions in the CHAT, the study looks at the justification for using the activity theory in the next section.

3.3 SELECTION OF THE THEORY

The first part of this section describes the justification for choosing and using the activity theory in the current study. The second part presents some selected studies that have used the activity theory while the third section presents lessons learned from the selected studies in relation to the current study.

3.3.1 Justification for using the activity theory

One justification for using the activity theory in this study is that the activity theory has been used in many fields of study such as astronomy (Barab, Barnett, Yamagata-Lynch, Squire & Keating, 2002), designing and planning of various courses in mathematics (Hardman, 2005), language learning and literacy (Roth & Lee, 2007), education policy and leadership (Hartley, 2009), teacher education or professional development (Roth & Tobin, 2001; Doecke & Kostogriz, 2005) and university teacher education (Mitchell, 2014). According to Lee (2011:404) and Nussbaumer (2012:37), the activity theory has been used in workplaces, organisational, educational and human-computer studies for over 20 years in Europe and North America.

From the foregoing, it can be stated that the activity theory has assumed a multidisciplinary approach to research (Plakitsi, 2013:2), which includes educational

issues. Examples of educational studies include Wilson (2004), Jurdak (2006), Aalst and Hill (2006), Zurita and Nussbaum (2007), Eijck and Roth (2007), Bailey and Thompson (2008), Mtika (2008) and Fiedler, Mullen and Finnegan (2009). Others are Keengwe and Kang (2013), McNicholl and Blake (2013), Allen et al. (2013), Sezen-Barrie, Tran, McDonald and Kelly (2014), and Robinson (2016). Bakhurst (2009:197) explains that the activity theory is suitable for research in education and that researchers can explore further its scope and limitations. Wilson (2014:22) adds that most research on teacher education has been relying on Engeström's work to analyse their work.

Mudavanhu (2014:51) considers the activity theory as a formidable "socio-cultural lens" which can be used to scrutinise human activity. According to Mudavanhu (2014:51), analysing human activity may entail establishing the types of activity, participants in the activity, goals of the activity, and the rules and norms prevalent in the activity. The researcher, therefore, finds the activity theory to be an appropriate framework to analyse views of the teacher educators, supervising teachers and student teachers on the teaching practice programme as they are all involved in its implementation. The justification for using the activity theory in the current study is illustrated with some selected studies in subsequent section.

3.3.2 Selected studies that have used activity theory

This section provides evidence of studies that have used activity theory. The studies help to illustrate the relevance of the activity theory to the current study.

3.3.2.1 The changing work of teacher educators in Aotearoa, New Zealand

In a study by Gunn et al. (2016), the activity theory was used to investigate the changing work of teacher educators in Aotearoa, New Zealand. The study was guided by the second and third generations of the cultural-historical activity theory (CHAT). The research design was based on the work of teacher education studies in the United Kingdom and Australia (Nuttall, Brennan, Zipin, Tuinamuana & Cameron, 2013:330). The researchers wanted to understand how teacher education is related to the institutional contexts where it operates and how cultural-historical analyses might reveal initial teacher education practices. Data were collected from student teachers and scholars in England and Scotland (UK), Australia, New Zealand, and

Canada through document analyses and interviews. The researchers established that initial teacher education as an activity of the academy had experienced changes in policy and funding procedures, which ultimately resulted in changes in the way the teacher educators performed their work in New Zealand. From the foregoing, it may be concluded that policies have an influence on teacher education. In the same vein, policies and funding procedures could also affect the implementation of teaching practice by the UNZA. As noted earlier in the literature review, Zambia has had three major educational policies, namely the Education Reform (1977), Focus on Learning (1992) and Educating our Future (1996). Therefore, the use of activity theory is appropriate as it may help the researcher to understand how the past and current policies may influence the implementation of teaching practice. In addition, the study may bring to light the 'practices' inherent in the teaching practice implemented by the University of Zambia.

Furthermore, the use of the activity theory by Gunn et al. (2016) is important because the activity theory is considered appropriate in qualitative research in that it helps researchers to understand human experience in context (Sam, 2012:86). Hashim and Jones (2007:n.p.) add that the activity theory is an all-inclusive method of discovery that can be used in qualitative and interpretative research. Similarly, the current study has adopted the qualitative approach in order to investigate the implementation of teaching practice by the University of Zambia. The current study uses the qualitative approach with multiple data collection methods to enhance understanding of the implementation of teaching practice by the UNZA from the perspectives of the teacher educators, supervising teachers and student teachers. In addition, the activity theory is suitable to this study because activities are best understood in the context in which they occur.

The activity theory is grounded on the claim that "human activity is endlessly multi-disciplinary, mobile, and rich in the variation of content and form" (Engeström, 1999:20). Spillane, Halverson and Diamond (2001:23) add that the activity theory provides for the interaction of actors, artefacts and situation. The focus of the current study is on teaching practice as a human activity, one which comprises many participants and artefacts, and has a context. For this reason, the use of activity theory is appropriate as it will enable the researcher to understand the

implementation of teaching practice better from the perspectives of the key players, analysis of the context and artefacts used.

Mtika (2008:67), McNicholl and Blake (2013:286) and Sam (2012: 84) explain that human activity can best be understood as a unit of analysis. Jonassen and Rohrer-Murphy (1999) explain that activity theory can be used to analyse most forms of human activity. In a similar manner, teaching practice as a human activity can be analysed using the activity theory. This is because the activity theory provides us with another way of understanding human thinking and activity. For example, teaching practice provides an opportunity for student teachers to practise the theory they learned in a university context in a classroom-school context and culture (Mudavanhu, 2014:52). In this regard, the researcher's understanding of the study participants' perspectives on teaching practice will be enhanced through the application of the activity theory.

Hashim and Jones (2007:n.p) have noted that the activity theory is useful in assessing the performance of an individual in relation to an activity such as teaching practice. To achieve this, an individual's skill in using tools to achieve a set objective is examined. For example, the use of tools for teaching purposes by student teachers on teaching practice can be analysed to establish whether the intended goal(s) are being achieved or not. In light of this, the researcher will examine the teacher educators' evaluation forms of the student teachers they observed during the teaching practice. Other elements of the activity theory such as rules and division of labour can also be investigated to establish their impact on teaching practice. In the implementation of the teaching practice programme, individual members of the teaching practice triad share different tasks and responsibilities (division of labour) (Lim et al., 2011:324) while being guided by the rules. In this regard, Engeström's third generation activity theory model is helpful in understanding how a combination of factors can affect an activity such as teaching practice.

3.3.2.2 Perceptions of students about learning

Using the activity theory, Portnov-Neeman and Barak (2013:9) carried out research on learners' perceptions about learning in school. They investigated how learning in school was affected by activity theory elements. While the majority of the learners were subjected to a semi-structured questionnaire, the rest were interviewed. The

findings indicated the learners' appreciation of the object and the division of labour in the learning activity. However, learners had a low opinion of the other activity theory elements, namely tools, rules and community. The researchers concluded that the current schooling limited learner-centred approaches as learners did not participate much in their learning. This indicates that current schooling offers only little in the way of a constructivist-learning environment in which students interact with tools, rules and community. Of importance to the current study is the effectiveness of the interview as a data collection method in assessing elements of the activity theory. The current study will also employ the interview to collect data. Considering the effectiveness of the activity theory in assessing the participants' perceptions of their learning, it is the researcher's considered view that the same theory will be appropriate in understanding the implementation of teaching practice from the perspectives of teacher educators, supervising teachers and student teachers.

3.3.2.3 Teaching practice in Malawi

Another study that used activity theory was conducted by Mtika (2008). The study examined teaching practice in Malawi. This study is important as it shares the same field and focus with the current study. Mtika's study explored elements within activity theory such as tools and subjects in order to understand student teachers' experiences of teaching practice. The study concluded that the experiences of student teachers in Malawi during teaching practice were diverse. Consequently, the diversity in experiences impacted on how student teachers learned to teach in a number of ways. Another important finding was that there was a discrepancy between what the student teachers had learned at college and what they found in schools during teaching practice (Mudavanhu, 2014:62). The study affirms that the use of activity theory is suitable when participants' experiences of a particular activity are being sought. In a similar way, the current study seeks to understand the teacher educators, supervising teachers and student teachers' experiences of the teaching practice implemented by the University of Zambia.

The activity theory model is considered to be effective in current activity theory analysis. It has been established that studies dealing with issues in university education and in particular teaching practice (see Mtika, 2008) have also used the activity theory. The current study is wholly situated in teacher education and

university education, and focuses on teaching practice. Spillane et al. (2001:23) describe the activity theory as one theory that allows a number of actors to play a role in an activity. This is also true for the current study as it involves three groups of participants, namely teacher educators, supervising teachers and student teachers. It is, therefore, clear that the use of the activity theory in this study is appropriate.

In addition, the current study has identified elements in the activity being investigated similar to those in the activity theory. These include subjects, rules, division of labour, artefacts and outcome as proposed by Engeström's (2001) third generation activity theory model. The third generation activity theory provides for more than one activity system, and is suitable for the current study. In this study the University of Zambia and the schools are the two activity systems.

As espoused by McNicholl and Blake (2013:295), CHAT seeks to be both developmental and explanatory in its approach. It provides us with opportunities for learning about collective processes undertaken to achieve a set goal (Gunn et al., 2016:310). In the context of this study, teaching practice is an activity whose process is collective in nature. This is because for it to be implemented, many people are involved, multiple activities are undertaken and each activity builds on the other. For example, a teacher educator teaches student teachers how a lesson should be planned and taught. In addition, a lesson demonstration is conducted for student teachers to learn about how teaching should be done. During the teaching practice, supervising teachers join in mentoring the student teachers. In short, each of the stakeholders in teaching practice plays a role.

3.3.2.4 The pedagogical features enabling successful inter-professional practice

The activity theory has also been used to interrogate the pedagogy of a continuing professional development programme (Meyer & Lees, 2013:662). In their study, Meyer and Lees (2013) wanted to establish the pedagogical features that enabled successful inter-professional practice. The study used a qualitative approach and, relying on professionals in the field, collected data through post-course interviews using semi-structured interviews. The study analysed and identified the ways in which pedagogy impacts upon the development of collaborative practice.

The study revealed that pedagogies aimed at harnessing multiple points of view “of activity systems and the contradictions of multi-disciplinary practice can be used to inspire learning and practise change” (Meyer & Lees, 2013:662). The study concluded that ‘community’ and ‘division of labour’ were important contextual influences on the learning process.

In view of Meyer and Lees’ (2013:662) analysis that the activity theory is a useful tool in identifying challenges that an institution may be facing, it is appropriate to use it in the current study to investigate the challenges faced in the implementation of teaching practice by the University of Zambia. Roth and Tobin (2002:108) state that it is possible to use the activity theory to identify the challenges that affect the implementation of teaching practice in order to ameliorate the theory-practice divide. According to Lee (2011:404), CHAT does not only contribute to the expansion of existing knowledge but it opens up other avenues for the improvement of theory and practice also. The current study seeks to identify weaknesses in the theoretical aspects as well as in the implementation of teaching practice in schools. In this regard, the findings and recommendations of this study may help in introducing innovations to address challenges in the implementation of teaching practice.

Further, it should be noted that Meyer and Lees’ (2013) inclusion and use of the terms ‘community’ and ‘division of labour’ is significant because they apply to the current study as well. In the current study, the two main communities are the schools and university while the division of labour refers to the teaching practice triad who perform different roles in the teaching practice. In spite of the differences in their roles, the participation of the triad should be collaborative if the teaching practice programme has to succeed. It is important to note that like Meyer and Lees’ (2013) study, the current study will also employ post-programme interviews with the study participants. This is to ensure that only study participants with the knowledge and experience of the issue under study participate in the research.

3.3.3 Lessons learned

Many lessons can be drawn from the application of the activity theory to various educational issues. It has been explained that the activity theory is multidisciplinary and that it has been used extensively to investigate educational issues. As noted by Razak et al. (2018:19), the activity theory as a conceptual framework can be used to

explain, scrutinise and interpret human activity. Further, the activity systems analysis can help us understand human activity embedded in collective learning environments such as schools. In the third-generation activity theory, the unit of analysis becomes joint activities instead of individual activity (Bourke, Mentis & O'Neill, 2013:39). Since teaching practice is a joint activity, the activity theory can be a useful and appropriate tool in understanding the implementation of teaching practice at the University of Zambia.

From the review of the literature on the activity theory, it has been learned that most of the studies tend to use the qualitative approach which also applies to this study. In addition, just like the current study, the main focus of the studies reviewed is on teacher education. In terms of data collection methods, the commonest method used is the interview while the second commonest data collection method is document analysis. The current study uses both these methods.

In addition, the studies reviewed used schools or tertiary level institutions as their study areas. To some extent, this explains why almost all of them used either pupils or teachers or both as sources of data. Similarly, the current study has the university and secondary schools where teacher educators, supervising teachers and student teachers are drawn as key sources of data.

The reviewed studies used activity theory as their theoretical framework while one study specifically used the second and third generation activity theory. Only one study referred specifically to CHAT as its theoretical framework. The current study will be guided by the third generation activity theory which allows for multiple activity systems. Engeström's (1987) third generation activity theory considers activity systems analysis as a valuable approach to understanding human activity in qualitative research (Razak et al., 2018:19). The studies that have used the activity theory as the theoretical framework have provided insight to this study that may assist in analysing the views of the teaching practice triad, the role of the supervising teacher and the challenges faced in implementing the teaching practice programme.

Finally, going by the literature reviewed, it has become apparent that the activity theory has not been as widely used in Africa for research purposes as in North America and Europe. For example, in Africa only one researcher, Mtika (2008), is mentioned (Mudavanhu, 2014:59). The paucity in the application of activity theory to

research has invigorated the researcher's desire to use it. It is hoped that the application of the activity theory to this study will attract other scholars' interest to use it in Africa. By using the activity theory, this study will be able to establish the views that the teacher educators, supervising teachers and student teachers have on the implementation of teaching practice by the University of Zambia. Having examined the justification for using the activity theory in the current study, the study considers in the next section the context of teaching practice as it is used in this research project.

3.4 CONTEXT OF TEACHING PRACTICE

In this study, teaching practice can be viewed in two contexts. In line with the activity theory, it can be viewed as an activity. Secondly, it can be viewed as a process. These two ways of viewing teaching practice are discussed in the next two sub-sections.

3.4.1 Teaching practice as an interactive activity

In relation to the activity theory, the main components of teaching practice include demonstration lessons, peer teaching, supervision and mentoring of student teachers. These components will be examined from the perspectives of teacher educators, supervising teachers and student teachers in order to establish the efficacy of teaching practice by the University of Zambia. The teacher educator, supervising teacher and student teacher are all engaged in the teaching practice programme as an interactive and tripartite activity. It is a tripartite activity by nature because it permits three groups of people to interact during its implementation. For example, the teacher educator can interact with the supervising teacher, while the student teacher can also interact with either of the two.

Figure 3.4 below shows teaching practice as an interactive activity. Individual participants in teaching practice, that is teacher educators, supervising teachers and student teachers, are linked to each other by bi-directional arrows. The use of the bi-directional arrow is important in this study as it signifies the interaction and interdependence of the three participants in the implementation of the teaching practice programme.

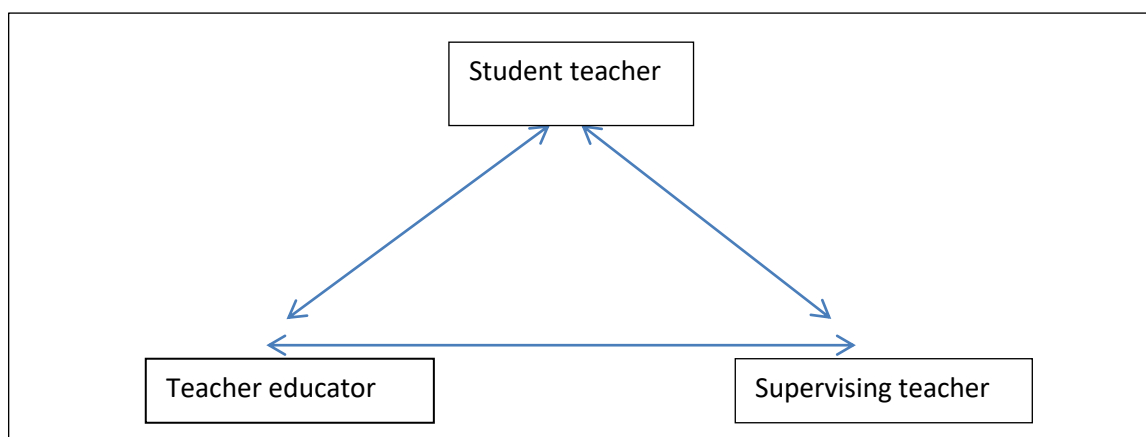


Figure 3.4 Teaching practice as an interactive activity

Every member of the teaching practice triad performs distinct tasks during the teaching practice programme. The sharing of these tasks among individuals is called the division of labour. Sometimes, during the implementation of the teaching practice programme, challenges may be experienced. For this reason, challenges arising from the implementation of teaching practice as an activity are worth probing.

Teaching practice operates in an activity system. As an activity, the teaching practice is guided by goals, rules and the history of the activity during its implementation. These rules are created by the university and schools. To achieve a goal, according to Vygotsky, individuals such as student teachers make tools (Silo, 2013:161). The tools include teaching aids and other teaching resources. As illustrated by Engeström's (2001:136) third principle of historicity, teaching practice as an activity is a "history of the theoretical ideas and tools that have shaped it". This means that our actions in implementing teaching practice are largely shaped by our previous experience of an activity.

An individual or group achieves a desired outcome only after engaging in activities comprising actions (Mtika, 2008:70). An activity is rooted in an adjoining system. For example, "specific learning and teaching strategies are rooted in both the classroom learning and school activity systems. The cultural life of the school is subsequently created and sustained within these two activity systems" (Wilson, 2014:21). In short, the cultural life of the school is created by the learning and teaching activities taking place. Having discussed teaching practice as an activity where different groups

interact in pursuance of a common goal, the study explains in the next section why teaching can be described as a process.

3.4.2 Teaching practice as a process

Before the student teachers go for teaching practice, they are required to undergo training in various aspects of teaching; they follow both content and methods courses. In addition, student teachers are given the opportunity to practise various teaching methods and other skills they have learned. For example, a teacher educator (i.e. lecturer) may demonstrate how a particular teaching method is used in a classroom setting. Once the demonstration has been done, student teachers are expected to do the same with their peers. The practice teaching between student teachers and their peers is referred to as peer teaching. Once the lesson has been taught, the teacher educator and other students make observations on it. Sometimes, student teachers are exposed to practice teaching in nearby schools that have been identified as demonstration schools. If this kind of teaching is done at a demonstration school, an experienced school teacher is assigned to observe the lesson. A class teacher can also work as a mentor during this period. After these 'mock' lessons have been conducted, student teachers go to schools to do teaching practice.

The objective of these 'teaching' activities is to help the student teacher to learn how to teach pupils effectively. Mtika (2008:69) and McNicholl and Blake (2013:286) explain that the outcomes of teaching practice include successful completion of the teaching practice programme and subsequent deployment in a school. They explain further that a lesson observation form (an example of a textual artefact), can be used in two ways, namely to stimulate student teachers' learning through reflection on their practice, and to measure the quality of the programme. Similarly, in this study, the teacher educator's lesson evaluation forms will be examined. Specifically, the researcher will examine the teacher educators' final comments in relation to the performance of student teachers during teaching practice.

For an activity to succeed, its goals and means must be spelled out clearly. In pursuance of fulfilling the activity, the implementers change and develop themselves. The ultimate goal of teaching practice, using a variety of methods and tools, is to train a person to become an effective teacher. Komba and Kira (2013:158)

recommend that aspects of the teaching practice process such as lesson plans and class teaching by student teachers should be examined.

Viewing teaching practice as a process has been supported by Janssen et al. (2014:195). They explain that in the traditional model of teacher education, university-based courses provide student teachers with pedagogical knowledge and teaching skills, while much of the preparation in teaching practice is done in schools. Assuming that teaching practice provides an opportunity to student teachers to learn about themselves, others and the new situations, it is appropriate to analyse the experiences of those learning to teach (Caires et al., 2012:166). In this regard, the quest for student teachers' views about the effectiveness of teaching practice is appropriate as it will help in improving our understanding of this component of teacher education.

It is in this context that the use of the activity theory becomes appropriate to this study. The importance of the “activity theory stems from the analysis of an individual, in pursuance of their activity and objective through an examination of their tools and its mediation through rules, community and history” (Hashim & Jones, 2007:n.p). Teaching practice as an activity requires tools in order to put theory into practice. It is developmental by nature as those involved grow intellectually and professionally. It is assumed that the participants in this study will be able to interpret the world from a broader “historical and societal context” (Davydov, 1999:39). It is expected that in this study teacher educators, supervising teachers and student teachers will be able to interpret the implementation of teaching practice by the University of Zambia in secondary schools based on their experiences. Having dealt with the context of the teaching practice in relation to the activity theory, the next section discusses how the current study is seen through the activity theory.

3.5 THE THIRD GENERATION ACTIVITY THEORY AS THE THEORETICAL LENS FOR THE STUDY

Teaching practice is an important activity of educational significance and will be investigated through the third generation activity theory lens. Sannino, Daniels and Gutierrez (2009:1) explain that the activity theory aims at examining progress “within practical social activities” in which people, for example, nurture their skills and

personality. One such activity is teaching practice where student teachers are expected to put theory into practice. Cook, Smagorinsky, Fry, Konopak and Moore (2002:391) add that the activity theory is able to explain how student teachers enter the teaching profession upon completion of their teacher training programme at the university.

Murphy and Rodriguez-Manzanares (2008:121) have explained that a learning activity is best understood when it is examined in its social context. Similarly, teaching practice as a learning activity takes place in a social context such as schools. Clark et al. (2015:171) add that “the context, school setting, environment, teacher educators, and cooperating teachers within and associated with teacher preparation programmes, all play a role in the types of learning experiences teacher candidates have”. The activity theory focuses on contextual factors that have a bearing on the development of subjects as they engage themselves in an activity such as teaching practice. Therefore, the activity theory framework is used in this study to analyse teacher educators, supervising teachers and student teachers’ views about teaching practice.

Mtika (2008:1) explains that the activity theory framework takes into account seven elements. These include the subjects, the mission, the tools and the rules. The other elements (See Figure 3.4) are the community, the division of tasks and the context of an activity system. All of these elements are found in teaching practice as an activity. An explanation on how the teaching practice implemented by the University of Zambia is seen through the activity theory is presented in the subsequent sections.

3.5.1 Community and context

As indicated in subsection 3.2.3 of this chapter, this study is situated in two distinct activity systems (see Figure 3.3). Therefore, in conformity with Engeström’s (1999) activity theory, this study can be said to be embedded in two communities within the activity systems. Community denotes the environment in which an activity takes place. It is a social group as it is made up of people (subjects) (Yamagata-Lynch, 2003:102). Subjects come together to become a community (Sezen-Barrie et al., 2014:690). In this study, the two communities are represented by the University of Zambia and secondary schools in Lusaka. The two communities comprise staff from the two activity systems. In short, all of the members of the teaching practice triad

form the community. The members of staff in the two communities interact with each other as they perform different but complementary tasks during the implementation of teaching practice. For example, while the University of Zambia teacher educators' main role is to train the student teachers in teaching methodology courses and content (theory), supervising teachers in secondary schools supervise the implementation of teaching practice (practical), and as earlier mentioned, the teaching practice programme takes place in a social context when it is being implemented in schools.

3.5.2 Rules

Each activity system is governed by norms and conventions (i.e. rules) in as far as teaching practice is concerned. The rules may be explicit or implicit. Teaching practice guidelines can be considered as part of the rules. According to Sam (2012:85), "rules are like laws, habits or norms" governing an organisation. Rules are important in that they can determine the extent to which interactions among subjects, tools, and objects take place. Further, rules or regulations can determine the performance of the activity. The rules provide an indication of the time frame, the place, the evaluation of the outcome and the criteria for success (McNicholl & Blake, 2013:286). In the current study, these rules are drawn up by the University of Zambia and secondary schools to guide the implementation of the teaching practice programme.

Sometimes, the application or non-application of these rules may be a source of tension or contradiction between the two activity systems. However, the two activity systems such as the university and schools share the same objective (i.e. object) of training a future competent and effective teacher (i.e. outcome).

3.5.3 Subject

The term 'subject' addresses the question of who is involved in carrying out the activity. In the structure of the activity system, the teacher educators, supervising teachers and student teachers constitute the subjects as they are the key players in the implementation of the teaching practice programme. This means that the subjects are the ones that are engaged in the activity. The aforementioned subjects

are the people whose views about teaching practice implemented by the University of Zambia are sought in this study.

3.5.4 Division of labour

Each of these groups has a specific task or tasks to perform. In short, there is a division of labour during the implementation of the teaching practice. In this study, the division of labour refers to the sharing of work (or roles or tasks) among teacher educators, supervising teachers and student teachers during the implementation of the teaching practice. The sharing of tasks is important in order to enhance efficiency. One of the objectives of this study is to explore the perspectives of supervising teachers on their role in teaching practice.

3.5.5 Object/goal

Another important element of the activity theory in this study is the object or, as simply referred to, the goal. It is one of the principal elements in that without it there cannot be an activity (Engeström & Kerosuo, 2007:337). The object refers to the goal or motive of the activity system as a unit. According to Aalst and Hill (2006:27), the “object” may comprise one or two problems to be investigated in order to improve understanding. The word ‘object’ will be used with the same meaning as ‘objective’. In this study, the researcher will address the objective(s) of teaching practice from the perspectives of the key informants. The main educational task in this study is to examine the implementation of teaching practice, which is the object. The main object of the teaching practice is for the student teachers to translate theory into practice. This means that the teaching practice programme enables student teachers to acquire improved skills and knowledge of the subject they are teaching.

3.5.6 Tools

Tools in this study refer to artefacts. The meaning of artefacts is not only restricted to tools such as teaching aids but to the proficiency of people (Edwards, 2010:73) and “lesson observation forms” (Wilson, 2014:25) including lesson plans, learning strategy and textbooks. Generally speaking, tools are teaching aids that student teachers use during training and in particular the teaching practice period. For teaching practice to succeed, teaching aids such as books (i.e. tools) with which to train and do teaching practice must be provided and used in an efficient and

appropriate manner. Mtika (2008:215) acknowledges the fact that tools must be available and used appropriately in order to achieve the objectives of teaching practice. The question is: to what extent do student teachers use these tools during the teaching practice?

3.5.7 Outcome

The last element in this study is the outcome. This study has adopted Keengwe and Kang's (2013:87) definition of outcome as the general plan or purpose of an activity system. The outcome may consist of new knowledge and skills (Aalst & Hill, 2006:27) as may be the case with teaching practice. This outcome can be either intended or unintended. In this study, the overall intention of the University of Zambia and secondary schools is to produce a teacher who will be able to teach in the most effective and efficient way. In short, the main outcome of the teaching practice programme is the production of a competent and effective teacher. The intended outcome is possible when a student teacher has sufficient and appropriate pedagogical knowledge and skills in lesson delivery as well as support and guidance from the university and secondary school staff. In short, the intended outcome of the teaching practice is for student teachers to learn how to teach effectively. This should be reflected in the views of the participants in as far as the implementation of teaching practice by the University of Zambia is concerned.

Overall, there are questions that need answers. For example, how effective is the implementation of the teaching practice programme by the University of Zambia? What are the contradictions or challenges faced in the implementation of teaching practice? How can the teaching practice programme be improved? It is the researcher's considered view that by gathering pertinent "data and using activity theory as a framework for analysis" (Mudavanhu 2014:51), plausible explanations to these questions can be found.

This section has explained how the seven interacting elements in an activity system (Mtika, 2008; Burnard & Younker, 2008; Mudavanhu, 2016; Song & Kim, 2016) fit into this study. The seven elements are subject, object, tools, community, rules, outcome and the division of labour. The researcher examined these elements in order to establish the efficacy of teaching practice implemented by the University of

Zambia. The diagram in Figure 3.5 provides a synopsis of how this study fits into Engeström's third generation activity theory.

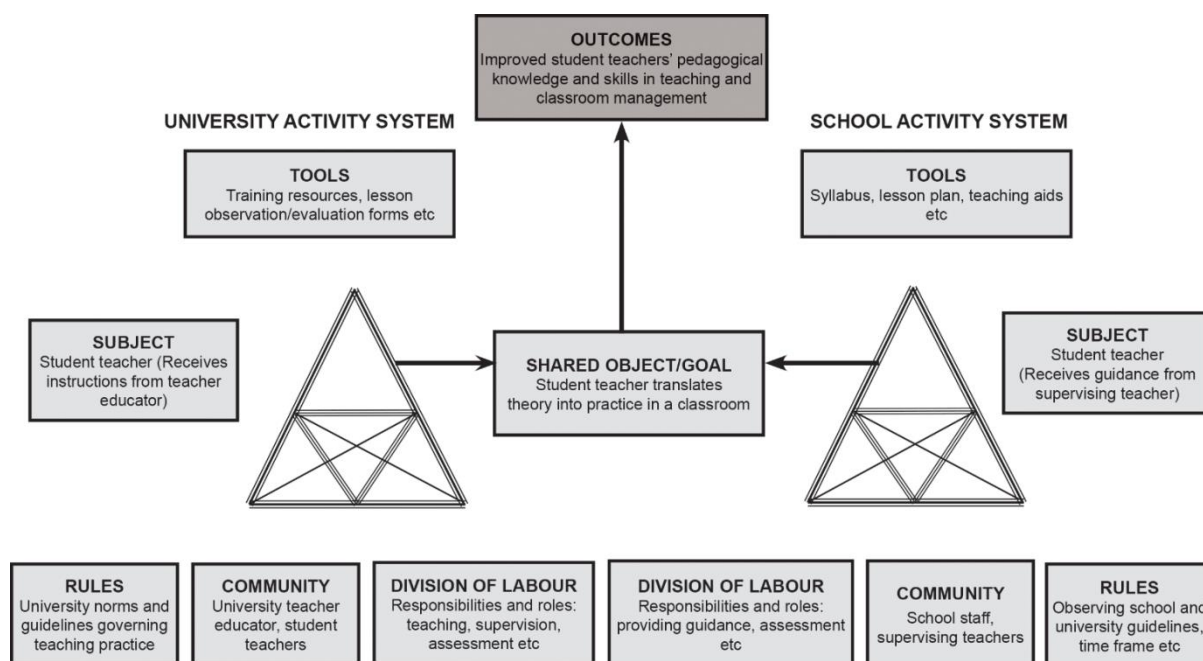


Figure 3.5 Two interacting activity systems involved in the implementation of teaching practice

Binjumah (2015:107) explains that the third generation activity theory is capable of dealing “with two interacting activity systems such as university and school to understand and make use of contradictions in the processes taking place as student teachers develop their practice”. The identified tensions and contradictions that arise in an activity system may unlock the potential for change in the way an activity is conducted (Murphy & Rodriguez-Manzanares, 2007:122) because when contradictions are analysed, they become a potential source of learning (Avis, 2009:160).

The third generation activity theory has included an additional element, namely the activity system in order to take care of the shared meanings of the activity by participants (subjects) pursuing the same object as shown in Figure 3.5. Each activity system has a community and rules to which every subject subscribes. In this regard, the successful implementation of teaching practice may to a large extent be influenced by the quality of interaction and interdependence of the teaching practice

triad. In this study, the two activity systems are expected to work together to achieve a set out goal, namely to help student teachers put what they have learned at the University of Zambia into practice in class. The expected outcome of implementing teaching practice is an improvement in the student teachers' pedagogical knowledge and skills in lesson delivery and classroom management. The next section presents a summary of the chapter.

3.6 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

This chapter has adopted and discussed the activity theory that will inform this study aimed at investigating the efficacy of teaching practice implemented by the University of Zambia from the perspectives of teacher educators, supervising teachers and student teachers. It has explained the origin of the activity theory and its development which comprises three principal stages commonly referred to as 'generations'. The chapter has also dealt with the justification for choosing the activity theory as the theoretical framework for the current study.

Further, it has been established that the activity theory supports qualitative and interpretive research such as the current one. Some aspects of the activity theory which include Engeström's principles of the activity theory have also been discussed. The justification for choosing the activity theory for the current study has demonstrated that the theory provides a multidisciplinary research framework. The chapter has also explained the third generation activity theory's ability to "provide a valuable theoretical base which deepens our understanding of the field of professional experience that connects university and school" (Bloomfield and Nguyen, 2015:30) in as far as teaching practice is concerned. Finally, the chapter has explained how the current study fits into Engeström's third generation activity theory (see Figure 3.3).

The next chapter presents the research design and methodology of the study. It focuses on the methodological approaches used to investigate the implementation of teaching practice by the University of Zambia. The justification for using each of these methodological approaches is also given.

CHAPTER 4

METHODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The preceding chapter dealt with the theoretical framework of the study, which is anchored in the third generation activity theory. In the same chapter, it was argued that teaching practice as an activity can be investigated and analysed using the activity theory. The activity theory considers what people do as the main focus of analysis (Bourke et al., 2013:39; Sam, 2012:84). As identified in Chapter 3, the core focus of analysis in this study is teaching practice. In this chapter, the research design and methodology used to investigate the implementation of teaching practice by the University of Zambia are presented.

In order to effectively present the research design and methodology of this study, the chapter is divided into nine sections which are: the research design, population, participant selection and sampling method, data collection methods, tools and procedures. The other sections are data processing and analysis, trustworthiness, ethical principles and summary of the chapter.

According to Taylor, Bodgan and De Vault (2016:3), the term methodology refers to the way or ways by which researchers attempt to find solutions to problems. Thomas (2013:103) adds that the methodology section explains the methods to be used in a study and includes a justification for using them. In the social sciences, the term 'methodology' generally refers to the way research is conducted (Taylor et al., 2016:3). In this chapter, therefore, a description of how this study was conducted is presented.

The research questions that are addressed in this study are related to the implementation of teaching practice conducted specifically by the University of Zambia. These are:

- What are teacher educators' opinions about their experiences of teaching practice in Zambian secondary schools?
- What are supervising teachers' opinions about their experiences of teaching practice in Zambian secondary schools?

- What are student teachers' opinions about their experiences of teaching practice in Zambian secondary schools?
- What is the role of supervising teachers in teaching practice?
- What challenges does the University of Zambia face in conducting the teaching practice programme?
- What improvements can be made to the teaching practice programme in secondary schools in Zambia?

The next section describes the research design for the study.

4.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

The most dominant research approaches are quantitative and qualitative approaches. The current study is situated in the qualitative approach in the form of a case study while the interpretative paradigm has been adopted. The design of a research study according to Maykut and Morehouse (2005:59) is the whole research approach which provides information relating to the conduct of the study, the participants and where the study will take place. Henn et al. (2006:46) and Thomas (2013:103) describe the research design as an outline of the plan to be followed when conducting research while Yin (2011:75) describes it as "a logical blueprint". Yin (2011:75) interprets logic as the "linkages among the research questions, the data earmarked for collection, and strategies for analysing data so that the data collected can address the research questions". The logic is important because it enhances the validity of a study, and improves its accuracy. Before discussing the qualitative approach in detail, the interpretive paradigm is presented in the next subsection.

4.2.1 The interpretive paradigm

According to Tracy (2013:38), and Snape and Spencer (2003:1), a paradigm is simply a choice that an individual makes in an effort to understand reality, build knowledge, and collect information about the world. Tracy (2013:38) adds that a researcher's paradigm is largely determined by a number of factors such as their understanding of what reality and knowledge are. Additionally, a paradigm "provides the largest framework within which research takes place and a basis on which researchers build verifiable knowledge" (Maykut & Morehouse, 2005:5).

A number of approaches, which include a positivistic approach and an interpretive approach or a combination of them, can be used to carry out educational research (Zulu, 2015:8). Any of these approaches can be used depending on the researcher's assumptions about the nature of the social world of education and knowledge, which in turn influence the type of research undertaken (Mtika, 2008:78). Two theoretical perspectives have dominated the social sciences, namely the positivist and interpretive paradigms. Although both paradigms are basic, Maykut and Morehouse (2005:15) explain that they do influence the general approach to research and practices within each paradigm. The next paragraphs elaborate on the interpretive paradigm which was adopted for this study.

Some researchers believe that the social world does not exist independently but instead is constructed by the study participants as well as the researcher (Mtika, 2008:78). These researchers believe that both reality and knowledge are constructed and reproduced by people. This theoretical perspective is referred to as interpretive. Snape and Spencer (2003:7) describe the school of thought that stresses the importance of interpretation as well as observation in understanding the social world as "interpretivism". According to Gray (2009:21), interpretivism does not consider natural and social realities to be the same. For this reason, different methods can be employed to investigate these realities.

Taylor et al. (2016:3) explain that the interpretivist is devoted to comprehending a social phenomenon from the actors' views and experiences of the world. Gray (2009:36) adds that interpretive studies aim at investigating what people have experienced and the views that they have about such experiences. By nature, interpretive studies have been described as typically inductive and are often associated with qualitative approaches. Thomas (2013:108) says that an interpretivist is interested in finding out how people interact with each other, think and create knowledge about the world. In addition, they are interested in learning about how people construct their worlds. In the same way, the researcher's considered view is that the interpretive approach can be used to investigate the teaching practice programme from the perspectives of the participants, namely the teacher educators, supervising teachers and student teachers.

In light of this observation, the underlying epistemology of this research was interpretive. The researcher found the interpretive approach appropriate for this study because all human practices are created and shared within a “social context while meaning is constructed” (Allen & Wright, 2014:138). In this study, the interpretive approach was appropriate in that it helped the researcher to uncover the social reality of the participants in relation to how they experienced teaching practice. This study was aimed at gathering and interpreting the opinions of teacher educators, supervising teachers and student teachers on the conduct of teaching practice by the University of Zambia. In line with this epistemology, reality and knowledge are said to be created and replicated “through communication, interaction and practice” (Tracy, 2013:40) between the researcher and study participants.

According to Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007:22), the interpretive approach requires the researcher to understand an issue or problem facing society from the perspective of the participants; that is, by analysing situations from the perspectives of participants. In this study, the researcher considered the implementation of teaching practice by the University of Zambia to be problematic. In this regard, to have a better understanding of teaching practice, the researcher examined teaching practice from the perspectives of the people who were directly involved in it. This was possibly based on the understanding that people are capable of understanding and interpreting the social world in which they live (Cohen et al., 2007:21; Tracy, 2013:132).

In this regard, participants’ knowledge of the issue being investigated and context in which it takes place were essential to the study of teaching practice conducted by the University of Zambia. For this reason, the researcher endeavoured to learn and understand teaching practice from the personal experiences and knowledge of the teacher educators, supervising teachers and student teachers. In order to have a deeper understanding of the participants’ experiences and knowledge of teaching practice conducted by the University of Zambia, the researcher employed an “interpretive frame of reference in order to bring meaning” to the participants’ experiences and understanding of teaching practice (Edson, 2005:44). The next section discusses the qualitative approach in detail.

4.2.2 Qualitative research approach

Stupart (2009:40) has observed that there are two research approaches that are underpinned by different philosophical assumptions. The research approaches are quantitative and qualitative (Stupart, 2009:40; Ary et al., 2010:23; Hendrikse, 2013:45). These research approaches shape the ways researchers approach problems, collect and analyse data. Krauss (2005:759) explains that “philosophical assumptions or a theoretical paradigm about the nature of the reality are crucial to understanding the overall perspective from which the study is designed and carried out”. Bearing this in mind, the qualitative research approach was adopted for this study.

Hammersley (2013:10) explains that the label “qualitative research” can be traced back to the 1960s when efforts were being made to distinguish it from quantitative research, which was already dominant. Qualitative research is an “umbrella term for an array of attitudes towards and strategies for conducting an inquiry that is aimed at discovering how human beings understand, experience, interpret, and produce the social world” (Sandelowski, 2004:893). Saldaña (2011:3) agrees with Sandelowski’s (2004:493) description of qualitative research when he explains that qualitative research is a term that is broadly used to refer to different approaches and methods used to study natural social life.

Teaching is one such natural social arena where teacher educators are constantly interacting with student teachers during the training of the latter. This interaction continues among teacher educators, supervising teachers and student teachers during teaching practice. Therefore, examining human experiences of teaching practice of these groups of people who are directly involved in it was very pertinent to this study. This is because the nature of qualitative research is that it largely relies on getting a detailed view of an issue through the experiences of the participants (Dawson, 2007:16).

Merriam (2009:13) notes that qualitative researchers are interested in understanding the meaning people have constructed; that is, how people make sense of their world and the experiences they have in the world. Sam (2012:86) supports the use of activity theory in qualitative research because an activity can be understood in context and that at “its very core, activity theory is aligned with qualitative methods”.

This implies that in order to investigate an activity such as teaching practice effectively, the researcher needs to interact with the participants involved in it.

In general, “qualitative research is based on a relativistic, constructivist ontology that posits that there is no objective reality but that there are multiple realities constructed by human beings who experience a phenomenon of interest” (Krauss, 2005:760). Thus, the qualitative methodology was “adopted in order to have an in-depth exploration” (Swabey, Castleton & Penney, 2010:36) of teaching practice conducted by the University of Zambia. In this study, therefore, the views of the teacher educators, supervising teachers and student teachers about the efficacy of teaching practice conducted by the University of Zambia were gathered and interpreted. This was made possible when the above-mentioned participants, referred to in this study as members of the teaching practice triad, were given the opportunity to express their opinions about their experiences of teaching practice. The next section outlines the main characteristics of a qualitative research approach.

4.2.2.1 The main characteristics of a qualitative research approach

In order to deepen our understanding of qualitative research, a summary of the main characteristics of qualitative research is presented below. According to Maykut and Morehouse (1994:39), and to which Creswell (2009:175) subscribes, qualitative researchers:

- tend to collect data from natural settings,
- personally collect data, for example, through interviews,
- typically rely on multiple forms of data rather than one source of data,
- neatly arrange the data collected according to groups and topics that emerge,
- keep the focus on learning the meaning of the problem they are investigating from the participants’ perspectives,
- often use a lens to view their studies from a theoretical orientation, and
- create a more detailed picture of what is being investigated by considering a variety of perspectives.

In addition, it should be mentioned that in qualitative research the process is emergent which means that the initial plan is not permanently fixed because all of the phases of the process can change during the collection of data. According to

Merriam (2009:16), the design of a qualitative study is emergent and flexible. For this reason, the researcher is expected to respond and adjust to the new changes that might occur in the course of the study. In this regard, the researcher was ready to exercise flexibility if some phases of the initial research plan changed whilst in the field. Equally important is the fact that qualitative research is a form of interpretative inquiry which requires researchers to base their interpretation on what they see, hear and comprehend.

The current study embraces most of the characteristics of qualitative research outlined above. For example, the study gathered data from natural settings, namely the University of Zambia, where the training of the student teachers took place, and schools, where the student teachers and supervising teachers conducted and supervised teaching practice respectively. In addition, different data collection methods which allowed the researcher to interact with the participants were employed. The data collection methods included face to face interviews, focus group interviews and lesson evaluation forms. The next section discusses the case study design which was adopted for the study.

4.2.2.2 Implementing a case study design

Earlier, it was mentioned that this study would be a case study. A case study is a more detailed investigation of specific 'units'. A unit can be an individual, a community or an organisation (David & Sutton, 2011:165; Thomas, 2013:150). According to Thomas (2013:150), the aim of a case study is to have a deeper and clearer understanding of the issue being investigated owing to the fact that many aspects of the case are investigated in great detail. This is achieved by collecting data from a variety of sources. Gray (2009:246) observes that case studies are very versatile in that they can be employed to investigate a wide range of issues which may include among other things, assessment of the performance of an organisation or training programmes. Therefore, the case study design was appropriate for a training programme such as teaching practice.

Further, it has been reported that case studies can be of a social nature, for example, about a person, a group or groups of people and public institutions such as schools (Davies, 2007:184; O'Leary, 2010:174). In this study, the focus was on a single institution, namely the University of Zambia, whose aspects of teaching

practice were interrogated. Key players in the implementation of teaching practice were the teacher educators, supervising teachers and student teachers. In this regard, the study investigated the key players' views about how teaching practice was being conducted by the University of Zambia in secondary schools.

David and Sutton (2011:166) have also observed that case studies use several methods. Davies (2007:34) argues that a case study allows for the use of multiple research methods in order to "produce a rounded portrayal of an identified subject". For example, methods such as interviews, focus groups and document analysis can be used (David & Sutton, 2011:165; Gobo, 2011:16). In this study, all the three mentioned methods were employed. What the study sought, therefore, was a rich and deeper understanding of the opinions that key informants had about the efficacy of teaching practice conducted by the University of Zambia and other related issues.

Having considered the merits and appropriateness of the case study design to the current study, the study describes the population, participant selection and sampling method of the study in the next section.

4.3 POPULATION, PARTICIPANT SELECTION AND SAMPLING METHOD

4.3.1 Population

In order to investigate the efficacy of teaching practice conducted by the University of Zambia, the target population from which the sample of this study was drawn comprised multiple subjects. These were teacher educators, supervising teachers and student teachers. Best and Kahn (2006:13) define the term population as a group of people sharing one or more common characteristics for the purpose of a research study. The population comprises all "individuals, cases or objects sharing some common features" (David & Sutton, 2011:226). This means that a population being studied possesses some characteristics that make it different from other populations. The next section provides a description of how the researcher selected the participants.

4.3.2 Participant selection

The sample for this study was drawn from the teacher educators, supervising teachers and student teachers. The sample for this study was 8 teacher educators, 10 supervising teachers and 24 student teachers. According to Best and Kahn

(2006:13), a sample can be defined as a part of the population that is chosen for the purpose of research. Zulu (2015:11) explains that a sample refers to individuals or participants from whom the researcher collects data for the study. The size of a sample for the study is determined by several factors. For example, factors such as the “purpose of research, the availability and accuracy of the sampling frame” are all important in selecting the participants (David & Sutton, 2011:234) who eventually make up the sample. The participants were considered key informants in as far as teaching practice was concerned.

It must also be noted that there is no specific rule regarding the sample in a qualitative study but considerations of time, money and availability of participants could influence the size of the sample. Cohen et al. (2007:93) add that it is difficult to come up with a specific number of participants for a given study that can be considered as an optimal sample size. However, a researcher may arrive at what may be considered as the correct sample size when aspects such as the purpose for which the study is being carried out as well as the nature of the population being investigated are given due consideration.

Researchers have documented that there is a tendency in qualitative research designs to investigate smaller samples (Silverman & Marvasti, 2008:14; Gray, 2009:180; Merriam, 2009:16; Manyasi, 2014:55). Henn et al. (2006:428) explain that purposeful samples tend to be small considering the intensity and amount of data sought in qualitative studies. O’Leary (2010:164) adds that owing to the fact that qualitative data is often detailed, researchers tend to restrict the sample size. Additionally, qualitative data analysis strategies are not generally dependent on large numbers. Silverman and Marvasti (2008:14) and Mtika (2008:79) explain that qualitative researchers prefer detail to scope. Commenting on the question of sample size in a qualitative research project, Merriam (2009:80) says that what is important is that a study should have enough participants, sites or activities to address the research question(s).

As mentioned earlier, this research is a case study, which demanded a detailed study of a specific unit (David & Sutton, 2011:165). The case study entailed investigating a single unit for the purpose of getting rich and detailed data. In this study, the researcher focused on the teaching practice that is conducted by the

University of Zambia. The study attempted, among other objectives, to establish the opinions of teacher educators, supervising teachers and student teachers about teaching practice. In addition, the study examined the role supervising teachers play in teaching practice and the challenges the University of Zambia faces in implementing it.

In this study, it was envisaged that employing a case study design with the help of interactive data collection methods would yield more detailed and reliable data. According to Ary et al. (2010:29), an interpretive study enables a researcher to obtain detailed information using data collected in different ways to increase understanding of the issue being investigated. Consequently, the collection of detailed information was aimed at gaining more insight into the teaching practice programme from the perspectives of the study participants.

According to Lodico, Spaulding and Voegtler (2006:140), qualitative researchers select study participants whom they believe to have an understanding or general knowledge of the issue or issues being studied. What is important in qualitative studies is to ensure that the selected sample yields sufficient data to address the research question. As Bengtsson (2016:10) observes, there are no specific “criteria when using content analysis for the size of a unit of analysis, neither the number of informants or objects to study, nor the length of the informants’ own written text or transcribed data”. Therefore, in this study, the sample size was determined on the understanding that sufficient data to address the research question would be collected from the identified sample. Having dealt with the sample size for this study, the next section explains the sampling method that was adopted.

4.3.3 Sampling method

Purposive sampling was the sampling method that was chosen for this study. O’Leary (2010:166) posits that a number of factors determine the choice of a sampling method to be used in a study. These factors include the nature of questions, the population, and how data will be analysed. In support of this position are Vanderstoep and Johnston (2009:188), who argue that qualitative researchers want to understand the conditions that trigger certain human behaviour in a given social context. In line with this study, the sampling method that met this criterion was

purposive sampling. This is because the researcher wanted to understand the efficacy of teaching practice conducted by the University of Zambia from the perspectives of individuals who were directly involved in it. The next subsection discusses the meaning of purposive sampling and how it was used in this study.

- Purposive sampling

Purposive sampling is a procedure according to which a researcher identifies key informants; that is persons who are considered to be knowledgeable about the topic being investigated (Lodico et al., 2006:140). This means also that the researcher identifies individuals believed to be representative of the population being studied (Davies, 2007:57). O'Leary (2010:169) adds that working with key informants means that the researcher believes that the answers to the research questions will be provided by selected individuals who have specialised knowledge in relation to the study. In short, the researcher uses his expert knowledge to select individuals who would meaningfully contribute to the problem being investigated (David & Sutton, 2011:232; Merriam & Tisdell, 2016:96). Similarly, the researcher purposively selected the teacher educators, supervising teachers and student teachers for this study.

Maykut and Morehouse (2005:40) support the use of purposive sampling “based on the possibility that each participant will expand the variation of the sample”. In addition, purposive sampling aims at gaining an understanding of certain practices in a given environment, context and time (Gray, 2009:180). In light of the foregoing, qualitative research participants were chosen on the grounds that they (participants) had something meaningful to contribute to the researcher’s comprehension of the research problem and the research question (Creswell, 2009:178). In this study, the main focus was to establish the views of the key players about the efficacy of teaching practice conducted by the University of Zambia. Having explained the type of sampling method used in the study, the next section presents details of the participants.

4.3.4 Participants

In this study, there were three groups of participants, namely teacher educators, supervising teachers and student teachers. The subsequent discussion provides details of how and why the participants were selected for the study.

4.3.4.1 Teacher educators

Teacher educators are key informants in as far as teaching practice is concerned. In this study, teacher educators were those who had been teaching education methods courses in the School of Education at the University of Zambia for at least two years. The teacher educators observe student teachers during the peer teaching sessions before the latter are sent to schools for teaching practice. In addition, the teacher educators go into the field to monitor and assess the student teachers on teaching practice in schools. The teacher educators also guide the student teachers. The teacher educators were selected purposively with the help of heads of department in the School of Education, following the granting of ethical clearance to conduct research by the UNISA College of Education ethics review committee.

4.3.4.2 Supervising teachers

In the context of this study, supervising teachers are teachers who teach in secondary schools in the city of Lusaka. Further, the supervising teachers are those who are directly involved in the supervision of University of Zambia student teachers on teaching practice. These teachers are essentially class teachers who have been teaching at a secondary school for not less than two years. Due to their experience in teaching, supervising teachers are normally given an added responsibility of supervising student teachers on teaching practice. In short, the supervising teachers included in the study were considered to be experienced in both teaching and supervision of student teachers on teaching practice.

To establish a list of schools to be included in the study, the researcher asked the Coordinator of School Teaching Practice at the University of Zambia to provide a list of schools where student teachers regularly did their teaching practice. After scrutinising the list of schools, a total of 20 schools that regularly engaged large numbers of student teachers to do teaching practice was short-listed. The short-listing of such schools was aimed at reaching out to supervising teachers who were

experienced and knowledgeable about supervising University of Zambia student teachers on teaching practice. All of the selected schools were evenly distributed across eight zones.

It must be mentioned that the list of schools had more than the required number of supervising teachers who qualified to take part in the study. This number was, however, necessary because if the selected supervising teacher declined to take part in the study, another supervising teacher would be approached. Out of the identified schools, the researcher managed to select the required ten supervising teachers from nine schools which were not affected by the cholera outbreak at the time of the study. Five of them were mixed or co-education schools while three schools were for girls only and the last one was a boys' only school.

Once the schools were identified, the researcher visited head teachers of the selected schools to select supervising teachers (participants) who had experience of supervising student teachers from the University of Zambia. Since the researcher had also been granted permission to conduct research in secondary schools by the Permanent Secretary of the Ministry of Education, head teachers willingly provided the much-needed assistance to the researcher. For the purpose of the study, only one supervising teacher was purposively selected from each school. However, one school provided two supervising teachers for the study. This was because the school had been engaging as many as 30 students from the University of Zambia at every teaching practice session. It was the researcher's considered view that such a school had many experienced supervising teachers who would contribute meaningfully to the study.

4.3.4.3 Student teachers

The last key informant in this study was the student teacher. As defined in Chapter 1, a student teacher is an individual undergoing a teacher training programme at the University of Zambia. In addition, the student teacher had just completed his/her teaching practice programme at a secondary school in the city of Lusaka during the period of the study. The experience of the student teachers in this study was important as the study was aimed at examining the participants' experiences of the implementation of teaching practice.

The student teachers were selected purposively with the help of teacher educators who were teaching them advanced teaching methods courses. The teacher educators managed to arrange groups of student teachers in preparation for focus group discussions because they were in direct contact with them. The next subsection describes the lesson evaluation form as a source of data for the study.

4.3.5 Lesson evaluation form

Another source of data for the study was the lesson evaluation form (Refer to appendix J), which is the official document used by teacher educators to assess student teachers on teaching practice. The lesson evaluation form contains a number of items on which a teacher educator bases his assessment of a student teacher. In addition, it has a section that requires a teacher educator to write final comments about the lesson observed, and to provide a grade for the lesson. The completed lesson evaluation forms for the study were readily accessed from the office of the School of Education Coordinator for teaching practice. The next section describes the data collection methods used in this study.

4.4 DATA COLLECTION METHODS

Three primary data collection methods were used in this study. These were: semi-structured interviews, focus group discussion and document analysis. Rossman and Rallis (2012:3) explain that the research questions in a study are addressed by the data the researcher collects from the field. To achieve this, a qualitative researcher employs a number of methods of data collection (Henn et al., 2006:160).

Saldaña (2011:31) observes that the decision to use any or a combination of these methods is mainly dependant on the type of research questions. For example, some qualitative research studies may employ only one data collection method while others may use two or more methods. Henn et al. (2006:160) and Saldaña (2011:75) conclude that interviews are used extensively in qualitative research studies to collect data, “perhaps because they directly solicit the perspectives of the people we wish to study”. Qualitative interviews, according to Xiaojun (2005:56), include a variety of forms, ranging from structured, to semi-structured, to unstructured. Gray (2009:252) supports the use of many sources of evidence in a case study such as this one. What follows is a detailed description of each of these methods.

4.4.1 Interviews

To meaningfully understand teacher educators and supervising teachers' views about the efficacy of teaching practice conducted by the University of Zambia in secondary schools, the researcher employed semi-structured interviews (See appendix G & H). The interviews were organised according to an interview schedule. Gray (2009:369) defines an interview as "a conversation between people in which one person plays the role of a researcher". The conversation is, however, different from an ordinary conversation in that it is organised and purposeful (Tracy, 2013:131). This is because it is essentially aimed at obtaining "in-depth information" on a given topic (Alshenqeeti, 2014:40). Some writers often classify the interview technique as "introspective" in that participants share their views and beliefs on a given phenomenon (Banda, 2008:149). Cohen et al. (2007:29) support the use of an interview because it "explores the construction and negotiation of meanings in a natural setting". Gray (2009:369) explains that many a time the interviewer writes questions in advance to ask the interviewee during the interview. During the interview, the researcher is responsible for recording information from the interviewee (Thomas, 2013:194).

Tracy (2013:132) outlines a number of advantages for using interviews in a research study. One advantage is that interviews yield rich data that can be used to address specific objectives of the study. Another advantage is that it is possible for the researcher to get a lot of information. In addition, through personal and honest interaction, the researcher can manage to obtain very sensitive and personal information from the respondents.

Lodico et al. (2006:121) have confirmed that most qualitative research includes interviews. There are mainly two types of qualitative interviews, namely one-to-one interviews and group discussions or focus groups. Henn et al. (2006:161) explain that the one-to-one interview is one in which a respondent is interviewed by the researcher on a particular issue over a period of time. In this study, the interviews were conducted face-to-face. Another data collection method used in this study was the focus group.

4.4.2 Focus groups

In this study, focus group interviews (See appendix I) were used to collect views from student teachers on the implementation of teaching practice conducted by the University of Zambia. Focus groups, also known as group interviews, involve groups of participants. It is one of the “qualitative interview strategies” in terms of which a group of participants is interviewed by a researcher (Saracho, 2015:453) on a specific issue. The focus group is used to establish how a group comes up with a common view on an issue under investigation. A focus group can consist of five to eight people (Patton, 2002:236). In this study, the terms focus group interview and focus group discussion are used interchangeably.

Dawson (2007:80) explains that a focus group comprises people that meet to discuss an issue for the purpose of research. During the focus group interview, the researcher’s main responsibility is to guide the discussion, for example, by asking questions on a set topic to which the participants give their views. The facilitator also ensures that guidance is provided to the group so that it remains focused on the topic under discussion. By implication, the facilitator has “more control than the respondent in terms of dialogue direction and topical emphasis” (Tracy, 2013:132).

Lodico et al. (2006:121) outline advantages of using focus group interviews. For example, a researcher can get data from many participants and at the same time manage to observe and take note of the interactions and group dynamics that take place. Dawson (2007:31) adds that it is possible in a single focus group interview to gather rich and varied views and that a participant can prompt others to recall issues that may have been forgotten. Tracy (2013:167) also explains that through group interaction, “participants’ experiences are validated, extended, and supported by similar others”. The next section presents the final data collection method that was used in this study.

4.4.3 Document analysis

Finally, teacher educators from the University of Zambia visit student teachers on teaching practice in schools. They observe and assess student teachers using a lesson evaluation form (Refer to appendix J). The teacher educators write comments and the final grade on the lesson evaluation form referred to in 4.5.3. In this regard,

the researcher considered the lesson evaluation form a valuable source of information about the teacher educators' assessment of student teachers.

The lesson evaluation forms (see appendix R & S) contain textual data. The use of textual data in qualitative research has been supported by O'Leary (2010:218) because it has several advantages. For example, textual data are available in large amounts from which a researcher can learn about what people have written. In addition, it reduces stress between the researcher and the participant as there is no need for the two to meet face to face. Another advantage of using textual data is that when themes have not been properly constructed, one can still compile them again from the original document, unlike interviews (Dladla, 2017:49). In this study, the researcher accessed the lesson evaluation forms without any difficulty. In addition, since the researcher had made photocopies of the lesson evaluation forms, it was easy for the researcher to examine them again whenever a need arose.

However, textual data also poses some challenges to the researcher. For example, the researcher needs to be wary of the origin of the data which may sometimes be subjective. In this study, the researcher considered the source of the textual data to be credible. This is because the lesson evaluation form is the official document which the teacher educators at the University of Zambia use to assess the performance of student teachers on teaching practice. A student teacher who is deemed to have failed teaching practice, for example, cannot qualify to be a teacher. In addition, the data on the lesson evaluation forms were considered credible because they were provided independently and freely by different teacher educators. Further, since the teacher educators' comments on the lesson evaluation form were unsolicited, it may be inferred that the aspect of human bias was completely eliminated. In light of this, the researcher considered the data from the lesson evaluation form to be rich, credible and suitable for triangulation with other sets of data.

The other challenge a researcher can face when using textual data is that some of the data may not address the research question. In light of this, the researcher spent a lot of time separating the relevant data from irrelevant data. It is also important for the researcher to "protect the needs of an uninformed participant" (O'Leary, 2010:220) while extracting data from the lesson evaluation forms. In response to this

requirement, the researcher maintained confidentiality about the identities of the participants whose lesson evaluation forms were selected for the study.

In light of the above, the study reviewed the teacher educators' evaluation forms in addition to the other data collection methods discussed in Section 4.4. According to Lodico et al. (2006:132), written evaluation forms are all part of the abundant data available, which can be useful to a research study. An evaluation of a document in this manner is what is referred to as document analysis. According to Bowen (2009:27) "document analysis is a systematic procedure for reviewing or evaluating documents – both printed and electronic material". He explains that such documents, among others, may include books and brochures, diaries and journals. Therefore, access to the lesson evaluation forms was important as it helped the researcher to gather data which could not have been obtained through other data collection methods such as an interview (David & Sutton, 2011:180).

Before winding up the discussion on the data collection methods, it is worth explaining why methodological triangulation was used in this study. Methodological triangulation is used to refer to a researcher's use of multiple methods to collect data (Flick, 2009:448). In this study, the term 'triangulation', refers to the "use of at least two data collection methods" (Cohen et al., 2007:112). Apart from using multiple data collection methods, the study used multiple subjects, namely teacher educators, supervising teachers and student teachers. In terms of data collection methods, the face to face interview, focus group interview and document analysis were used in this study. In relation to the aforementioned, the researcher used three data collection methods in order to enhance the credibility and trustworthiness of the study. By triangulating data from the three different sources, the researcher "provided a confluence of evidence" that enhanced credibility (Eisner, 1991 as cited in Bowen, 2009:28). In addition, credibility and trustworthiness of the study were achieved because the researcher made conclusions based on the data gathered from a variety of sources (Yin, 2011:9). Issues of credibility and trustworthiness of the study are explained in detail under section 4.7. Having presented the data collection methods, the next section describes the data collection tools and procedures used in this study.

4.5 DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES

Saldaña (2011:3) explains that much of the qualitative data collected and analysed is made up of textual materials such as notes taken during an interview. Lodico et al. (2006:116) add that the data that qualitative researchers collect are often in forms such as words and pictures. This is one of the main reasons why in this study the collection of data was done through interviews, focus groups and document analysis. However, it must be mentioned that in qualitative research a more complete description of the procedures used is required after the study has been conducted (Bogdan & Bicklen, 2007:54). What follows, therefore, is a description of the data collection procedures that were used to investigate the efficacy of teaching practice conducted by the University of Zambia.

4.5.1 Semi-structured interview schedule

Both teacher educators and supervising teachers were subjected to a semi-structured interview. As stated earlier, the researcher constructed a semi-structured interview schedule. According to Dawson (2007:29), in this type of interview, the researcher gets specific information that can be compared and contrasted with information gained in other interviews. To do this, Dawson (2007:29) explains further that the same questions are asked in each interview with a measurable amount of flexibility to allow for other important information that may arise to be captured. According to Hatch and Coleman-King (2015:452), an interview is appropriate in qualitative studies because it enables a researcher to get the participants' perspectives on the issue being investigated more effectively than any other data collection strategy. In this study, an interview was used to gather views of teacher educators and supervising teachers on the efficacy of teaching practice implemented by the University of Zambia.

Participants in the study were invited to the interview by means of a written letter. All of the interviews for both teacher educators and supervising teachers took place in offices and at a time convenient to the individual participant. For schools where a supervising teacher did not have an office located in a quiet place, head teachers helped in securing an office for an interview. It must also be mentioned that most of the interviews took place when secondary schools and the University of Zambia had extended holidays due to the outbreak of cholera. Due to this problem, it was difficult

to engage study participants at any time. As for student teachers, the focus groups were held starting from the month of April 2018, although the student teachers had reported for school a month earlier. The data collection for the entire study took place over a period of seven months i.e. from January to July 2018.

The interview schedule for this study included a brief script to explain the purpose of the study. It also made provision for recording the date, background information on the interviewee and the preliminary questions to be used in the interview. In addition, it had questions or topics for discussion. For both teacher educators and supervising teachers, the interview procedures were basically the same. The researcher would start by greeting the participant followed by self-introduction. The researcher would then provide an outline of the research topic, background information on the purpose of the study, and an explanation about how the interview would be conducted. Most importantly, the participant was told about the audio recording of the interview and also assured of the confidentiality about what would be discussed. This was a critical step in creating rapport and trust between the researcher and the participant. In one incident, a participant (supervising teacher) told the researcher that she had agreed with all of the conditions on the consent form except for the recording of the interview. Since the researcher had a predetermined way of collecting data, (with good reasons) the interview could not take place. The most important step, therefore, before any interview could start was for the participant to sign the consent form freely.

The main data collection tool for the interviews in this study was an audio recorder. The use of an audio recorder in qualitative research such as this one is of prime importance for two reasons. First, it conserved the integrity of the data and second, recorded verbatim responses that were used in the data analysis (Lodico et al., 2006:126). Apart from the audio recorder, the researcher also used a notebook to write down what could not be captured by the audio recorder. Gestures and facial expressions reinforcing what was being said, for example, could not be captured by an audio recorder. Once all of the questions had been tackled and discussion had ended, the researcher thanked the participant for taking part in the study.

Finally, the researcher reminded the participants that once the transcript had been written, they would be asked to validate its contents. Further, the researcher

reminded the participants that if there were any matters for clarification after the interview, the participants would be requested to attend to them. Most of the interviews lasted between 40 and 60 minutes.

4.5.2 Focus group discussion

Once the teaching practice was over and the student teachers had reported back to the University of Zambia, the researcher started making preparations for the focus group discussions. This was a convenient time for students to reflect on their experiences during teaching practice in secondary schools. It also afforded the researcher more time to hold a focus group discussion with the student teachers. To come up with focus groups, the researcher asked the teacher educators who were responsible for teaching advanced methods courses to select student teachers for the study. The criterion used to select student teachers was simple and straightforward. All student teachers who had just completed their teaching practice were eligible. For the purpose of the focus group interviews for this study, each focus group comprised six student teachers. A day or two before the focus group discussions would be conducted, the researcher met selected focus group participants with an invitation letter asking them to participate in the study. The time and venue would also be agreed upon. Either a tutorial room or resource room was used for each focus group discussion.

When the researcher met a focus group, he greeted the participants, introduced himself, and then explained what the study was all about. The researcher would then ask the participants to introduce themselves as well. This was aimed at building familiarity among members of the focus group. In addition, the researcher would explain the research ethics to be upheld at all times. When this had been done, the researcher asked all of the participants present to sign a consent form. Once they had signed the consent form, the focus group discussion would commence.

At the start of the focus group discussion, the researcher encouraged the participants to contribute to the discussion freely and at any appropriate time without waiting to be asked to do so. A semi-structured interview schedule was used to investigate student teachers' opinions about the teaching practice conducted by the University of Zambia. The researcher started each focus group discussion with a question relating to the topic. The researcher took down notes in a notebook during

the discussion. At the same time, an audio recorder was being used to record the proceedings of the interview. The audio recorder was important as it helped a lot during the transcription of interview notes; the researcher could not write down everything said in the interview. Throughout the focus group discussion, the researcher remained verbally active, asking further questions or rephrasing the same question if it appeared the question had not been understood clearly. This helped the researcher to get as much information as possible.

The role taken by the researcher in this study is in line with Finch and Lewis' (2003:180) explanation that the main role of the researcher in the focus group is to enhance free, interactive discussion while at the same time taking care to encourage more individual participation and avoid spending more time on less important matters. Once all of the questions had been exhausted and the discussion had ended, the researcher thanked all of the participants for attending and contributing to the focus group discussion. Finally, the researcher would remind the participants that after the interview recording had been transcribed, there would be a follow-up meeting for the group members to validate the contents of the script. A focus group discussion on average lasted one hour and twenty minutes.

4.5.3 Lesson evaluation form

After teacher educators have observed student teachers on teaching practice, they are expected to fill in a lesson evaluation form. The lesson evaluation form is a two-page document (See appendix J) consisting of three sections. The first section focuses on how a student teacher handles a class. For example, it has items on how a student presents lesson objectives, develops a lesson and evaluates pupils. Adjacent to these items is a rating scale (in table form) against which a student teacher is rated. A score of 5 represents 'excellent' while 1 is 'unsatisfactory'. The second section provides for overall comments by the teacher educator while the last section provides space for the final grade. In this study, the last two sections were examined. It is the data relating to the final comments and the grade on this form that the researcher evaluated in line with the document analysis guide.

The lesson evaluation forms were collected from the Coordinator for the School Teaching Practice of the University of Zambia, who is the custodian of these forms.

Only lesson evaluation forms of student teachers who had participated in the focus groups were collected and examined.

Once the data had been collected, the next stage was to process and analyse the data for the purpose of providing meaningful answers to the research questions. The next section explains how the data collected for the study were analysed and interpreted in order to understand the participants' views about teaching practice conducted by the University of Zambia.

4.6 DATA PROCESSING AND ANALYSIS

In this study, the data were analysed using thematic and content analysis methods. The aim of data processing and analysis is to transform data into findings. Data processing involves a number of operations which include editing, classification and tabulating qualitative data. According to Best and Kahn (2008:21), editing is aimed at identifying errors and omissions in the data collected and making the necessary corrections, while classification involves arranging data, for example in groups on the basis of common characteristics. Tabulating data involves summarising of the raw data in order to display it in compact form.

From the start, it must be stated that in qualitative research there is no single prescribed method for the analysis of data (Cohen et al., 2007:461; Gray, 2009:494). Patton (2002:432) explains that whereas advice or guidance can be given on how qualitative data should be analysed, the final decision depends entirely on the researcher's ingenuity as every qualitative research project is unique. Cohen et al. (2007:461) and Gray (2009:494) add that it is the purpose of the study that mainly helps to determine how the data are analysed.

In qualitative research, it is possible for a researcher to "analyse, refine and re-organise the data" while the research is being carried out (Maykut & Morehouse, 2005:113; Dawson, 2007:115; Burnard, Gill, Stewart, Treasure & Chadwick, 2008:430). Saldaña (2011:90) holds the same view that collection and analysis of data can occur simultaneously owing to the fact that the "qualitative research design, fieldwork, and data collection are most often provisional and emergent". In this study, therefore, the researcher analysed the data collected as soon as a transcript of the interview had been completed. The data was analysed simultaneously with data

collection in line with what Ary et al. (2010:481) describe as “an iterative, recursive and dynamic process”. This procedure makes it possible for a researcher to make changes to the interview schedule during the process of data analysis as a response to the emerging themes (Burnard et al., 2008:430). Probably, this is what prompts Saldaña (2011:90) to conclude that if the original methods fail to function according to the original plan, the researcher can replace them with other methods so that the correct data is collected.

In light of the foregoing, qualitative researchers use a variety of procedures to analyse data (Berg, 2001:238). According to Ary et al. (2010:481), data analysis refers to a process which involves examining and interpreting data. It entails “consolidating, reducing, and interpreting what people have said including what the researcher has seen and read” (Merriam, 2009:176). Therefore, to analyse data is to make meaning out of the data collected in form of text and images (Fourie, 2015:31). In order to have meaningful findings, the researcher chose methods that adequately analysed the qualitative data on the implementation of teaching practice by the University of Zambia.

Although there are slight differences in the approaches used to analyse data, Ary et al. (2010:481) have identified three basic stages of data analysis as “organising and familiarising, coding and reducing, and finally interpreting and representing”. To facilitate the process of data analysis and interpretation for this study, the researcher depended largely on Creswell’s (2009:185) and Braun and Clarke’s (2012:5) steps in data analysis. These steps include the generation of raw data, organising data, and reading and re-reading the organised data. The other steps are the identification of themes, merging of themes and the interpretation of data. These approaches were important in a qualitative study such as this one because they helped the researcher to identify the data that addressed the research questions. A diagrammatic representation of the data analysis steps is displayed in Figure 4.1.

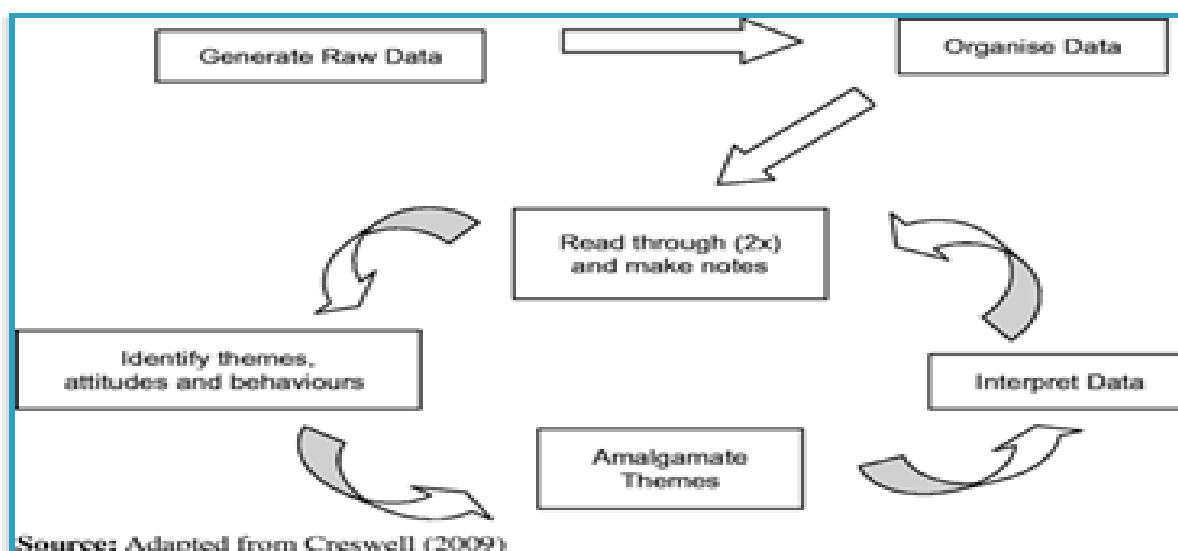


Figure 4.1 Steps in data processing

In light of the foregoing, the next section describes the specific steps that were undertaken to process and interpret data for this study.

4.6.1 Generating raw data

The first step in data analysis as shown in Figure 4.1 above was to generate raw data. The sources of raw data were the audio recorded interviews that the researcher had with teacher educators, supervising teachers and student teachers. In addition, the teacher educators' lesson evaluation forms which contained textual data were another source of raw data. In short, the raw data was generated through the above-mentioned techniques. The next section describes how the generated data were transcribed.

4.6.2 Transcribing data

Following the generation of the raw data from the interviews and focus group discussions, the researcher transcribed the data. To transcribe a set of data is to write down everything that has been said and observed during an interview. Therefore, in this study to transcribe meant transforming 'raw data', that had been audio recorded during interviews and focus group discussions, into a clearly readable form or text. The final products of this process were written transcripts. According to Henn et al. (2006:190), a transcript is simply a "processed version of the actual data".

Transcription is an important component of analysis (Tracy, 2013:178). This is because it serves a number of purposes. Gibson and Brown (2009:210) summarise the purposes of transcription as follows:

Through transcripts, researchers are able to give sense to their data, to focus on particular issues or data features rather than others, to analytically filter their data, to impose and explore structures.

Gibson and Brown (2009:113) have identified three general types of transcription. These are indexical, unfocused and focused transcription. Focused transcription requires the researcher to come up with a detailed account of “what was said or done” during a recorded interview. The focused transcription was adopted for this study because it resulted in the generation of a lot of useful data. Transcribing took a long time because the researcher had to play back the audio recorder several times to ensure that everything that had been said was captured and written down.

The transcription stage helped the researcher to prepare and organise raw data into meaningful units of analysis. This is because the researcher transformed the participants’ recorded voices into written texts. In addition, relying on documentary evidence contained in the teacher educators’ lesson evaluation forms, the researcher extracted information and transformed it into textual information in line with the research questions (Henn et al., 2006:190). This process ensured the transcribed texts were accurate prior to the coding of the data. Further, member checks were used to enhance credibility (Refer to subsection 4.7).

David and Sutton (2011:325) observe that the process of transcribing is to some extent analysis as the researcher has to interpret and select data relevant to the study. Extracts 1 and 2 are actual examples of the transcribed data that sought to establish participants’ understanding of ‘teaching practice’. These two extracts are taken from the original transcripts of two supervising teachers. The symbols ‘I’ and ‘R’ represent the interviewer (researcher) and the respondent (supervising teacher) respectively. The symbol SupTA in Extract 1 stands for the supervising teacher number 1 while the symbol SupTB in Extract 2 stands for the supervising teacher number 2. Below are the two extracts.

Extract 1

I: Share with me what you understand by teaching practice.

R: Basically teaching practice is like an industrial break for the student teachers so that they can experience teaching methodology and teaching itself (SupTA, interviewed on 12 January 2018).

Extract 2

I: Share with me what you understand by teaching practice.

R: Teaching practice is the period when the learners that are in colleges or universities have an experience of what is obtaining in the schools, classroom situation as well as the school environment in general. In short, it is an activity where students that are to be teachers are accorded the chance to have an experience of teaching in schools (SupTB, interviewed on 9 January 2018).

Having explained how the data from the interviews and lesson evaluation form were transformed into textual information, the next section describes how the data were organised.

4.6.3 Organising data

The researcher used two ways to organise the data. One way was to place the data in tables while the other was to assign symbols to the participants and documents. Details on how the data were organised are presented in the next two subsections.

4.6.3.1 Tabulating data

As mentioned above, one way in which data were organised was by placing the data in tables. The question is: Why were the tables used? The tables were used to display participants' responses to the interview questions. These responses were extracted from the original transcripts of all of the participants. The data were arranged in such a way that the participants' responses followed one after the other. The tables made it easy for the researcher to compare and understand the meaning of the participants' responses to the research questions within and across the data sets.

Table 4.1 below illustrates how two supervising teachers' responses to the question relating to the meaning of teaching practice were arranged in a table. The two supervising teachers were given pseudonyms or symbols SupTA and SupTB. The data displayed in Table 4.1 were extracted from the original transcribed texts (See Extracts 1 and 2 above).

Table 4.1: Two supervising teachers' conceptualisation of teaching practice

Supervising teachers	Responses
SupTA	Basically teaching practice is like an industrial break for the student teachers so that they can experience the teaching methodology and teaching itself
SupTB	Teaching practice is the period when the learners that are in colleges or universities have an experience of what is obtaining in the schools, classroom situation as well as the school environment in general. In short, it is an activity where students that are to be teachers are accorded the chance to have an experience of teaching in schools

Arranging the data in tables also helped the researcher to become more familiar with the data as this was an important step in the interpretation of data. To become familiar with the data required the researcher to read through the transcripts as many times as possible. Another way of organising the data involved the allocation of codes or symbols to the participants and the lesson evaluation forms. The next subsection explains how and why symbols were allocated to the participants and documents in this study.

4.6.3.2 Assigning symbols to participants and documents

As mentioned in the previous section, another way of organising data involved the allocation of symbols to the participants as well as the lesson evaluation forms. This was meant to uphold the principles of anonymity and confidentiality in research. Hendrikse (2013:63) explains that confidentiality is about concealing the identity of a study participant and securing storage of information so that the information received in the study is not linked to the identity of the participant. Although details about allocation of symbols are presented in Chapter 5, it is worth giving an example. With specific reference to Table 4.1, the two supervising teachers are labelled as SupTA and SupTB. Lesson evaluation forms were given the symbol TEF. This ensured that the researcher avoided using the actual names of the participants. Having described

how the symbols were assigned to the participants and the lesson evaluation forms, the next section focuses on how the data were coded and themes created in this study.

4.6.4 Creating themes

Following the organisation of the data, the next step the researcher focused on was the coding of the data and establishing themes for the study. Therefore, in this section, the researcher explains how the data from the interviews (focus group discussions included) and lesson evaluation forms were analysed using thematic and content analysis methods respectively.

4.6.4.1 Thematic analysis

Though themes are commonly used in qualitative studies, Vaismoradi, Jones, Turunen and Snelgrove (2016:101) maintain that there is not enough literature on them or on how they are developed. Similarly, Sandhya and Mahapatra (2018:1967) and Belotto (2018:2627) observe that the available literature has considerable diversity and lacks details in as far as the identification of themes is concerned. Nowell, Norris, White and Moules (2017:2) and Dladla (2017:49) also note that in spite of its wide usage in qualitative studies, thematic analysis is barely acknowledged. Probably this lack of detailed information about the development of themes could be attributed to the fact that the “way to find a theme involves intuition that is difficult to be described” (Vaismoradi et al., 2016:102). In spite of this difficulty, some authors such as Braun and Clarke (2006) and Gibson and Brown (2009) have explained in detail how themes in a qualitative study can be developed.

Braun and Clarke (2006:79; 2012:6) define thematic analysis as a method for “identifying, analysing and reporting patterns (themes) within data”. It is a way of making out patterns in a data set when developing “themes become categories for analysis” (Fereday & Muir-Cochrane, 2006:82). According to Gibson and Brown (2009:127), the data is analysed on the basis of “commonalities, relationships and differences across a data set”. The researcher’s main interest at this stage of the study was to select the data from the interviews and focus group discussions that addressed the research question or part of it.

A word or phrase from the interview transcript or developed by the researcher were used for the purpose of coding. According to Clark and Vealé (2018:483), Gibson and Brown (2009:131), David and Sutton (2011:339) and Saldaña (2009:3), in a qualitative inquiry a code refers to a word, phrase or sentence that stands for features of data. David and Sutton (2011:609) add that coding in qualitative inquiry is the choosing and assigning of a label to sections of textual material so that the various parts related to a code can be analysed collectively and patterns identified. In addition, coding is aimed at condensing the data while maintaining the meaning of the initial data (Clark & Vealé, 2018:483). In this regard, the researcher read and understood each interview transcript before labelling it according to common themes (coding) (Campbell, 2013:65). In short, the researcher came up with a summary statement or word, herein being referred to as a theme, to represent the words in the interview transcript. This process is a representation of what is being referred to as the thematic analysis method. In this study, both “data coding and data analysis were performed manually using an iterative, interpretive approach” for all of the interviews, focus group and document analysis (Alhwiti, 2007:49).

Creating a theme is important because a theme represents some meaning within a data set (Braun & Clarke, 2006:82). In this study, particular themes of interest included those that addressed issues related to the conduct of teaching practice, the role of supervising teachers and challenges faced in the implementation of teaching practice. The researcher reviewed the codes for patterns and common themes repeatedly. This is because in qualitative research the boundaries of the categories and themes are not permanent as they involve the researcher’s interpretive judgement. In some cases, therefore, the researcher abandoned some codes or relocated them under another theme (Braun & Clarke, 2012:8). In using thematic analysis, the researcher took extra care to ensure that the identified themes related to and assisted in answering the research question (Dladla, 2017:50). Finally, the researcher used the identified themes and subthemes to write the findings and discussion of findings as reported in Chapter 5. In the process of writing that chapter, answers to the research questions were established.

Although thematic analysis as a method of data analysis has some weaknesses such as limited literature and no agreement on how researchers can use it in a study, Braun and Clarke (2006:96) are of the view that “a rigorous thematic analysis

is capable of yielding trustworthy and insightful findings”. According to Braun and Clarke (2006:78), one advantage of using thematic analysis to analyse qualitative data is that the method can be modified to cater for multiple studies. In addition, thematic analysis can be used to explore differing views of the participants which may result in the generation of new insights into the study. The second advantage applies to the current study in that it sought views from three different groups of participants on the implementation of teaching practice by the University of Zambia in order to gain even more insight.

This subsection has described how the thematic analysis method was used to identify themes based on the data drawn from the interviews and focus group discussions. The next subsection describes how content analysis was used in this study.

4.6.4.2 Content analysis

The data obtained from the lesson evaluation forms were subjected to content analysis. According to Dladla (2017:51), content analysis describes in detail what is said. Content analysis in this study involved “making inferences about data (text) by systematically and objectively identifying special characteristics (classes or categories) within them” (Gray, 2009:500; Norum, 2008:24). In this regard, content analysis was aimed at establishing themes based on the comments that teacher educators made on the lesson evaluation forms during the teaching practice session.

To come up with themes, specific procedures were used to analyse lesson evaluation forms. These procedures were adopted with a view to addressing the research question in insightful ways. O’Leary (2010:222) outlines a number of important things to consider when conducting document analysis, which this study took note of and implemented. The first step the researcher took was to read and re-read the comments written on the lesson evaluation forms to become familiar with the data. The next step involved examining the texts thoroughly, picking out words, phrases and sentences that addressed the research questions followed by interpretation. This approach is what is referred to as document analysis as it examines already existing documents as the primary source of data (O’Leary, 2010:223). O’Leary (2010:222) observes that document analysis should be considered as an “iterative and on-going process”. This “iterative process makes use

of elements of content and thematic analysis” (Bowen, 2009:32; Human, 2017:137). In this study, the iterative process referred to the repeated analysis of lesson evaluation forms until themes and subthemes were identified. The researcher reflected on the process as well as the comments that the teacher educators had written on the lesson evaluation forms and where necessary made changes to the extracted texts.

In order to come up with patterns and common themes, the researcher depended on the coded segments of the lesson evaluation form. The patterns were “characterised by similarity, difference, frequency, sequence and correspondence” (Clark & Vealè, 2018:483). This approach is called summative content analysis as words and phrases that were frequently used on the lesson evaluation forms were noted by the researcher (Dladla, 2017:52). The process of creating themes did not end at this point as the researcher continued refining the themes until it became evident that all of the identified themes and subthemes had been captured. In addition, the relationships between and among themes and subthemes were also established. The data from the lesson evaluation forms enabled the researcher to gain further insights into teaching practice from the perspectives of teacher educators.

Having discussed the steps that were taken to analyse the data using thematic and content analysis methods, the study focuses in the next section on how the data was interpreted and presented.

4.6.5 Interpretation and presentation of findings

4.6.5.1 Interpretation of findings

Interpreting qualitative data or findings means coming up with the meaning of the data collected for the study. According to Tracy (2013:5), interpreting requires a researcher to come up with “explanations for the participants’ explanations”. Patton (2002:438) defines interpretation as an aspect of research that requires the researcher to explain the findings. According to Lodico et al. (2006:313) interpretation of qualitative data sometimes entails linking the findings to the completed studies or theoretical framework adopted for the study. It can also refer to the researcher’s reflections on the work done. Finally, it can also deal with the

limitations of the study while proposals for further research may also be part of the interpretation.

In this study, the researcher links the findings of this study to what others have already done in this area or on this topic. In addition, some statements are quoted directly from the interview transcripts while other statements are summarised and paraphrased in the researcher's own words to explain a particular event, concept or understanding. In addition, it should be emphasised that in qualitative studies, a thick description of phenomena under study facilitates analysis and interpretation of data (Rossman & Rallis, 2012:270). Thus, in this study, thick description was a strategy that was employed in both data analysis and interpretation. In the next section, the researcher demonstrates how the findings of the study were presented.

4.6.5.2 Presentation of findings

Finding the right approach to present findings is critically important in every study. Burnard (2004:176) identifies two main approaches that can be used to present findings of a qualitative research project such as this one. One of the two approaches involves the presentation of findings without supporting discussion. The other approach involves the presentation of both the new evidence and the earlier research findings simultaneously. In this study, the researcher has used the latter approach to present the findings of the current study.

In this study, the presentation of findings was anchored in the identified themes. These themes were developed during the data analysis phase and were "supported by multiple forms of data collection" (Duffy, 2006:59). Within each major theme are subthemes that were identified and discussed in support of the major themes. The researcher applied the across-case approach which requires the researcher to gather answers from different participants on common questions together (Patton, 2002:376; Kalimaposo, 2010:129). This approach was necessitated by the fact that almost all of the questions for the interviews and focus group discussions were essentially the same. In light of this, answers to the interviews and focus group discussions are organised and presented question by question.

In addition, quotations and detailed descriptions of the findings are employed in this study. According to Bechhofer and Paterson (2000:160), reporting an interview in a

qualitative study requires citing the actual words used by the interviewee in order to bring out a “remarkable and invaluable interpretation”. This is made possible by the fact that in qualitative research, interviews are transcribed verbatim. Using verbatim transcriptions of the interview helped the researcher to project the actual ‘voices’ of the participants in as far as teaching practice conducted by the University of Zambia was concerned. Further, the use of direct quotations helped the researcher in understanding the underlying meaning of the teaching practice programme from the perspectives of teacher educators, supervising teachers and student teachers. In some instances, tables have been used to summarise the findings of the current study in Chapter 5, as guided by Clark and Vealé (2018:484). Tables are useful in presenting qualitative research findings such as themes because they show the main characteristics of a data set and important patterns in summary form.

Having discussed how the data are interpreted and presented in this study, the study addresses the credibility and trustworthiness in the next section.

4.7 TRUSTWORTHINESS

The study employed the following criteria, namely dependability, credibility, transferability and confirmability to achieve trustworthiness. These four criteria were created by Lincoln and Guba (1985) in their book titled: *Naturalistic inquiry*, in an effort to make it easy to understand the concept of trustworthiness (Nowell et al., 2017:3; Shenton, 2004:63) and to assess the trustworthiness of findings in qualitative research (Gray, 2009:194). While quantitative studies use terms such as generalisation, reliability and objectivity to determine quality, qualitative studies use the term trustworthiness (Bengtsson, 2016:13; Korstjens & Moser, 2018:121). Trustworthiness is about finding out whether the findings are consistent with reality (Shenton, 2004:64) or asking the question: how worthy are the findings of a study? (Korstjens & Moser, 2018:121).

Boshoff (2014:36) has explained that the “epistemological foundation of qualitative research is not based on facts but on values and value judgements”. Henn et al. (2006:176) also observe that there are many critical issues in qualitative research studies that practising qualitative researchers must address to enhance the trustworthiness of findings. Some of these issues are closely related to research

ethics. According to Houghton, Casey, Shaw and Murphy (2013:13), the four criteria can be used to assess the rigour of qualitative research. In respect of this study, the meanings of these four criteria as approaches to rigour in research are discussed in detail in the subsequent subsections.

4.7.1 Credibility

In this study, credibility was achieved by employing triangulation, member checks, peer examination and use of quotations from the interview scripts. Korstjens and Moser (2018:121) consider the term ‘credibility’ as an aspect of qualitative research. Credibility is aimed at providing a clear account of the study process including how the data was collected and analysed (Bengtsson, 2016:13). This is an important step in qualitative research as it builds “confidence in the truth of the research findings” (Korstjens & Moser, 2018:121). Credibility is about representing and interpreting the participants’ original views in the most transparent, truthful and clear way. Dladla (2017:55) explains that credibility is about “making the research findings believable”. Cope (2014:89) concludes that credibility in a qualitative study is upheld when the researcher “demonstrates engagement, methods of observation and audit trails”.

There are many strategies that can be used to achieve credibility in qualitative research. These strategies include “prolonged and varied field experience, time sampling, reflexivity (field journal), triangulation, member checking, peer examination, interview technique, establishing authority of researcher and structural coherence” (Shenton, 2004:64; O’Leary, 2010:115; Houghton et al., 2013:13; Anney, 2014:276; Nowell et al., 2017:3; Korstjens & Moser, 2018:121). What follows is a detailed explanation of how these three strategies, namely triangulation, member checks, peer examination and quotations from the interview scripts were employed to enhance credibility of the study.

In this study, triangulation was used and it refers to the application of many data collection methods. The specific data collection methods used to investigate the implementation of teaching practice by the University of Zambia were interviews, focus group discussion and document analysis. According to Casey and Murphy (2009:41), triangulation serves two main purposes. One purpose is to confirm data, which refers to the process of “comparing data gathered from multiple sources in

order to explore the extent to which findings can be verified". The other purpose is to make sure that the data collected is complete. Completeness of data implies the gathering of various views from different sources in order to have a full picture of the issue being investigated (Houghton et al., 2013:13).

The use of multiple data collection methods has been supported by Gray (2009:185), who has proposed that qualitative interviews, for example, can be combined with document analysis or other types of data gathering techniques. Cohen et al. (2007:105) add that 'validity' in qualitative data could be achieved, for example, through the researcher's integrity in terms of honesty, objectivity, depth of investigation and also the extent to which multiple data collection methods are used. In support of this argument, this study used more than one data collection method, which included document analysis and interviews. The researcher collected data from a variety of sources and interpreted the data accurately. In addition, Shenton (2004:73) and Human (2017:12) observe that triangulation through the use of different methods and different informants can improve the "rigour, credibility and trustworthiness of the study".

Credibility was also enhanced through member check. Member check is about getting feedback from the participants in order to improve the data as the researcher and the participant may view and interpret the same data differently (Korstjens & Moser, 2018:121). It refers to a process whereby participants in the study are asked to examine whether the transcribed work is a true record of what they (the participants) said. This process enhanced the accuracy of the interpretation of the data. Shenton (2004:68) and Sulistiyo et al. (2017:717) acknowledge the value of employing member checks during and on completion of data collection to ensure accuracy and enhance the credibility of the study. Apart from removing errors, this process helped the researcher to understand the context in which some data had been given during the interview. This also helped the researcher to interpret the data more accurately. Following this process, where necessary some editorial amendments to the interview transcripts were effected. Overall, the participants were satisfied that the transcripts were a reflection of what they had said in the interviews.

Peer examination, also known as peer debriefing, was used in this study. As the term suggests, peer examination refers to the researchers' colleagues in the same

field who are asked to examine the work and make comments in order to enhance its credibility. Anney (2014:276) explains that it is important for a qualitative researcher to receive support from fellow professionals who may help the researcher to improve “the inquiry findings”. In this study, some teacher educators were consulted and asked to make comments at various stages of the research process such as the preparation of the data collection tools and data analysis process.

The extensive use of quotations from the interview transcripts in the study was another strategy that was used to enhance the credibility of the study. The researcher often uses the actual words spoken by participants to respond to the research questions to illustrate the original findings. The researcher uses the verbatim transcriptions of the interview in order to bring out the actual ‘voices’ of the participants on the issue under investigation. This greatly helped the researcher to understand the participants’ views and the underlying meaning of the issue.

Finally, Cohen et al. (2007:105) add that ‘validity’ in qualitative data could be achieved, for example, through the researcher’s integrity in terms of honesty, objectivity, depth of investigation and also the extent to which multiple data collection methods are used. In support of this argument, this study used more than one data collection method, which included interviews, document analysis and focus group discussion. Having dealt with the issue of credibility for this study, the next subsection discusses dependability in qualitative studies such as this one.

4.7.2 Dependability

In this study, purposive sampling, keeping a record of changes made, audit trail and peer examination were the methods employed to enhance dependability of the study. The term ‘dependability’ as used in qualitative research corresponds to the term ‘reliability’ in a quantitative study as earlier stated. Dependability in this sense refers to the “stability of the data over time” (Bitsch, 2005:86). It refers to the degree that changes are made over time including the alterations a researcher makes during the course of analysing data (Bengtsson, 2016:13). Due to the changes that may be made during the research process, the researcher must establish a reliable system of tracking changes at any given time.

In this study, purposive sampling was used to ensure that only participants who had knowledge and experience of the issue being investigated took part in the study. In this regard, the participants' contributions enhanced the dependability of the study. Further, maximum care was taken to keep a record of changes made, accompanied by a brief explanation of each change. In addition, what is called an audit trail was also implemented. An audit trail entailed a proper system of storing research documents such as transcribed scripts, recorded interviews on the audio recorder, and photocopies of the teacher educators' lesson evaluation forms, which could be used for cross-checking whenever a need arose. This helped the researcher not only to track such changes with ease but to account for such changes during the presentation of the findings as well as in writing the report.

Finally, peer examination, which in principle is not different from member checks, was also used in this study. At the time of the study, there were four other colleagues who were also undertaking their doctoral studies by distance mode. By coincidence, all of them were using the qualitative approach in their studies. This provided a common platform for our discussion on research. The researcher benefited from the comments peer colleagues made on the research process including the findings of the research. Such consultations contributed positively to the dependability of the study as well.

4.7.3 Confirmability

Confirmability was ensured through writing and storing collected information as well as conducting an audit trail. Confirmability refers to how neutral and accurate the data collected is (Tobin & Begley, 2004:392). It is closely linked to dependability as the processes for establishing both are similar (Houghton et al., 2013:13). Anney (2014:279) proposes the use of a reflexive journal as an effective way for the researcher to maintain neutrality and accuracy in data collection. A reflexive journal refers to documents in which the researcher keeps some data to reflect on later. Items such as the research events and personal reflections on the research process could be kept in these documents. In light of this, the researcher wrote and stored such information in a notebook.

Bowen (2009:307) adds that an audit trail is a reliable way of confirming that the report is based on evidence derived from the research process itself and not on the researcher's imagination, values and beliefs. In this study, the researcher made every attempt to collect and use the data accurately and without bias. This is demonstrated in the findings of the study in which the verbatim transcription of interviews are presented.

4.7.4 Transferability

In this study, two strategies were used to enhance transferability. The first was providing a detailed description of the study, while the second was using purposive sampling. At the start of Section 4.7, the term transferability was said to be equivalent to generalisation in quantitative studies. In qualitative studies, transferability is the application of results of a given study to other settings and participants (Cope, 2014:89). It refers to the extent to which findings can be generalised (Nowell et al., 2017:3). Regarding the first strategy, the researcher described the research process as well as findings in detail. Cope (2014:89) supports the use of detailed description in qualitative studies stating that the researcher is expected to provide enough information so as to assist the reader to examine the extent to which findings can be transferable.

The second strategy concerned the use of purposive sampling. The choice of purposive sampling was appropriate as it enabled the researcher to interview participants who were knowledgeable about the matter under investigation. This resulted in the collection of abundant and useful data that adequately addressed the research questions. This, in turn, assisted the researcher in creating a detailed description of the entire research process including findings. Overall, the trustworthiness of the study was improved by the researcher's determination to fulfil the methodological requirements of the study. The next section focuses on the ethical principles to which the researcher adhered.

4.8 ETHICAL PRINCIPLES

The first step that the researcher undertook before the commencement of field work for the research study was to request for research ethics clearance from the College of Education Research Ethical Clearance Committee at the University of South

Africa (UNISA). This was in line with the UNISA's policy that requires every postgraduate student to get ethical clearance before carrying out a study. Getting ethical clearance was important because ethics are the principles of conduct which guide the researchers in their research (Thomas, 2013:38; David & Sutton, 2011:30). Having satisfied the requirements, the researcher was granted ethical clearance by the Ethics Review Committee on 18 October 2017 (See appendix B). Details of other related ethical issues and how they were handled in this study are discussed below.

Having obtained the research ethics clearance certificate, the researcher wrote to the Permanent Secretary of the Ministry of Education (MoE) requesting permission to conduct research in secondary schools in the city of Lusaka. The target population in the secondary schools were the supervising teachers earlier elaborated on under subsection 4.3.2. At the same time, the researcher wrote a letter to the Registrar of the University of Zambia requesting permission to conduct research at the University of Zambia. The Registrar's permission was needed in order to carry out interviews with teacher educators and student teachers at the University of Zambia. Fortunately, both requests were granted within a period of one month. Approval letters from the UNISA's College of Education Research Ethical Clearance Committee, the Permanent Secretary of the MoE and the Registrar of the University of Zambia are found in the Appendices section and are labelled as Appendix B, D and F respectively.

Subsequent to the preceding activities, the researcher wrote letters to teacher educators, supervising teachers and student teachers requesting them to participate in the study (see appendices L, M and N). It must, however, be mentioned that these invitation letters to participate in the study were not issued to the would-be participants at the same time. This meant that a letter soliciting an interview would be given to the would-be participant only when the researcher was ready to engage such a participant or group. Considering that the head teacher in this study was the 'gatekeeper' at a secondary school, the researcher met the head teacher and explained how the intended study would be conducted with the supervising teachers. Once the head teacher agreed to the researcher's request, the researcher delivered the letter to the purposively selected participants. The responses to the request to participate in the study were impressive in that the majority agreed to take part. The same approach was used to secure appointments for the interview with the teacher

educators and student teachers. It was only after a participant had agreed to take part in the study that the researcher went ahead to meet and conduct the research with the participant. Similarly, the teacher educators' lesson evaluation forms were obtained from the Coordinator for the School Teaching Practice on the strength of the University of Zambia Registrar's approval letter to carry out the research.

Prior to the commencement of the interview or focus group discussion as the case was with the teacher educators and supervising teachers, and student teachers respectively, the researcher made sure that the principles governing research ethics were strictly followed. Thomas (2013:38) explains that ethical principles are concerned with how a researcher executes work, thinks about the inquiry and research study, and shows respect to others. These principles included a briefing of the participant on, among other things, the purpose, process, and the use of the research study. For example, the participant was told about how the study would be conducted such as the use of an audio recorder during the interview, their right to withdraw from the study without any penalty, confidentiality of the research process and their right not to answer any question. All these measures were taken to ensure that the dignity and welfare of the participants were protected (Gravetter & Forzano, 2012:107).

Once the participants had understood the explanation and agreed to take part in the study, they were asked to sign a consent form. The consent form contained the information needed by participants in order to make an informed decision regarding participation (Gravetter & Forzano, 2012:118). The consent form can be described as a document that a participant signs to indicate his/her willingness to take part in the study. It works like a contract or agreement between the researcher and the participant. The information in the consent form is part of the ethics guidelines. It covers such important aspects as willingness of participants to take part in the study, clear objective of the study, and confidentiality. Since all of the participants in the study were adults, there was no need for parental consent. A sample of the consent form that participants were asked to sign appears as appendix O, P or Q.

In addition, at the start of every interview, the participants in the study were verbally assured of maximum confidentiality about their participation and identity before, during and after the study. For example, to ensure confidentiality, the researcher

used coded identities for each of the participants throughout the entire research process (Turner, 2011:88). The same procedures were used during the processing of the teacher educators' lesson evaluation forms. Names and information on the teacher educators' lesson evaluation forms were treated with the utmost confidentiality. In short, to protect identities of the participants and schools where the study took place, pseudonyms and codes were used in this study (Lind, 2004:17).

Finally, the researcher made sure that no participant was harmed, dehumanised or taken advantage of in any way. At the end of each interview, the researcher thanked the participant for his/her contribution and promised to maintain confidentiality. In addition, the researcher assured the participant of his return in order for the participants to confirm the correctness of the transcribed interview. In this study, as much as was humanly possible, the researcher adhered to the ethical principles of research. The next section presents a summary of this chapter.

4.9 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

This chapter has provided details about the research design and methodology. It has described how the study into teaching practice conducted by the University of Zambia was carried out. In this qualitative case study design, an interpretative approach was adopted. This approach was selected because the researcher holds the view that "the social world does not exist independently but instead it is constructed by the participants" (Mtika, 2008:78). Having adopted the qualitative design for the study, the researcher has explained the basic principles of the design as well as the justification for using it in this study.

The sample for the study was purposively drawn from the teacher educators, supervising teachers and student teachers whose experience and/or knowledge about the research problem were critical to the study. The main data collection methods were the interview, focus group discussion and document analysis. The main data collection instrument for the interviews and focus group discussions was a semi-structured interview schedule. Details about the data collection procedures have also been discussed.

The researcher has also described the entire process of how the data was analysed and interpreted. For example, while the data from the interviews and focus groups

were analysed thematically, the lesson evaluation forms were subjected to content analysis. The data analysis process helped the researcher to understand and interpret the participants' views on how the University of Zambia implements the teaching practice programme in secondary schools. Finally, measures to uphold the credibility and trustworthiness of the study, and ethical principles including the process of obtaining ethical clearance for the study, have also been highlighted.

The next chapter presents details on the research findings, including analysis and discussion of the findings. The findings are presented using the identified themes and subthemes. The analysis involves thick description of the findings supported by evidence from what the participants said during the interview as well as the literature reviewed. In addition, evidence extracted from document analysis is used to support the findings.

CHAPTER 5

PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter focused on describing the research design and methodology of the study. This is a qualitative study which depended on interviews, focus group discussion and document analysis to collect data. The sample was purposefully selected and comprised teacher educators, student teachers and supervising teachers.

The main focus of this chapter is to present the main findings of the study. The study was aimed at investigating the following question: **‘How effective is the teaching practice conducted by the University of Zambia for the preparation of teachers to teach in secondary schools in Zambia?’** The third-generation activity theory was used as a theoretical framework to support the analysis of the views of the key teaching practice triad members on the implementation of the teaching practice. The activity theory provides opportunities for learning about collective processes undertaken to achieve a set goal (Gunn et al., 2016:310).

The findings are organised under five main sections. The first section presents the demographic data of the participants while the second section presents and analyses the research findings based on the semi-structured interviews and focus groups. The third section presents and analyses the data emanating from the document analysis. The fourth section presents the final analysis of the main findings of the study. The fifth and last section provides the final remarks on the findings of the study followed by the summary of the chapter. The findings of the study are derived from the research sub-questions which were presented in Chapter 1 as follows:

- What are teacher educators’ opinions about their experiences of teaching practice in Zambian secondary schools?
- What are supervising teachers’ opinions about their experiences of teaching practice in Zambian secondary schools?
- What are student teachers’ opinions about their experiences of teaching practice in Zambian secondary schools?

- What is the role of supervising teachers in teaching practice?
- What challenges does the University of Zambia face in conducting the teaching practice programme?
- What improvements can be made to the conduct of the teaching practice programme in secondary schools in Zambia?

The next section presents the participants' demographic profiles. This information is important for two reasons. First, it helps in identifying the participants in the presentation and discussion of the findings. Second, it provides justification for the inclusion of these participants in the study.

5.2 DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILES OF PARTICIPANTS

The study comprised eight teacher educators; twenty-four (24) student teachers from the University of Zambia, and ten supervising teachers from nine secondary schools within the city of Lusaka. Detailed demographic data of the participants are presented in the next three subsections.

5.2.1 Teacher educators

The study involved six male and two female teacher educators from the School of Education at the University of Zambia. They were drawn from seven teaching subjects: Civic Education, Geography, Religious Studies, History, French, Biology, and English language. All eight of the teacher educators were involved in offering teaching methods. It was also noted that all of them had experience in teaching at secondary school level. In addition, three of them also have experience of teaching at a college of education. All but two teacher educators had more than ten years' experience in training secondary school teachers at the University of Zambia. The longest serving teacher educator had 24 years' experience of teacher training at the University of Zambia (excluding four years of teacher training at a college of education).

The findings revealed that four teacher educators had a doctoral degree while the other four had a Master's degree in education. At the time of the study, three teacher educators were serving as heads of department while two had served in the same capacity previously. Two of them had served in other administrative positions and

one had never held any administrative position. Table 5.1 below shows a summary of the demographic characteristics of the teacher educators.

Table 5.1: Demographic profiles of teacher educators

Symbol	Gender	Highest academic qualification	Teaching background	Teaching methods subject	Teaching experience (in years)
TEA	Male	Master's	Primary & Sec. school	History & Civic Education	28
TEB	Male	Master's	Sec. school & college	Geography	13
TEC	Female	Doctorate	Sec. school	Religious Education	16
TED	Female	Master's	Sec. school	History	5
TEE	Male	Doctorate	Sec. school & college	English Language	9
TEF	Male	Doctorate	Sec. school & college	French	24
TEG	Male	Master's	Sec. school	Biology	13
THE	Male	Doctorate	Primary & Sec. school	English Language	11

Source: Field data, 2018 (Sec = Secondary)

5.2.2 Supervising teachers

There were ten supervising teachers involved in the research, of which three were female while seven were male. Each of them had a degree in teaching from the University of Zambia. In addition, three of them had a diploma qualification in teaching. In terms of subject area specialisations, five of them were trained in arts subjects while the other five were trained in the science-related subjects as shown in Table 5.2 below.

Table 5.2: Demographic profiles of supervising teachers

Symbol	Gender	Highest academic qualification in Teaching	Degree awarding institution	Teaching subject(s)	Teaching experience at sec. school
SupTA	Male	First Degree	UNZA	English Language	14 years
SupTB	Male	First Degree	UNZA	Mathematics	8 years
SupTC	Male	First Degree	UNZA	Mathematics	8 years
SupTD	Male	First Degree	UNZA	History & Civic Educ.	5 years
SupTE	Male	First Degree	UNZA	Civic Educ. & History	12 years
SupTF	Male	First Degree	UNZA	Physics & Chemistry	10 years
SupTG	Female	First Degree	UNZA	Chemistry & Biology	15 years
SupTH	Female	First Degree	UNZA	English Language, Literature & History	22 years
SupTI	Female	First Degree	UNZA	English Language & Geography	13 years
SupTJ	Male	First Degree	UNZA	Mathematics & Religious Studies	10 years

Source: Field data, 2018 (UNZA: University of Zambia)

As shown in Table 5.2, seven supervising teachers had been teaching for at least ten years. The longest serving supervising teacher had 22 years of teaching experience at secondary school level while the least experienced had five years. In addition, all the supervising teachers had experience of teaching practice conducted by the University of Zambia in secondary schools. At the time of the study, four of the supervising teachers were heads of departments while the remaining six were heads of sections.

The schools from which the supervising teachers were selected for the study were evenly distributed across the eight zones. However, due to the cholera outbreak which lasted for almost five months in 2018, the Government of the Republic of Zambia banned all school activities in two zones that were adversely affected. For this reason, the researcher selected supervising teachers for the study from the remaining six zones. The next section presents the final group of study participants.

5.2.3 Student teachers

The third group of participants for the study comprised student teachers. All the student teachers were pre-service teachers studying at the University of Zambia. They took different teaching subjects and had just completed their teaching practice. Besides one student teacher who took English Language as a single subject major, the rest took two teaching subjects commonly referred to as 'double major'. This composition of students widened the scope of views on the teaching practice programme.

Although the study had initially proposed to conduct focus group discussions with a total of 40 student teachers, only 24 turned up. One reason for the reduced number was that some student teachers expressed unwillingness to participate in the study at the eleventh hour thereby making it difficult for the researcher to find replacements. Another reason was that some student teachers reported after the interview had already started and so they were barred from participating. Most importantly, no further interviews were conducted once the researcher noticed "thematic repetition" (Sohn, Thomas, Greenberg & Pollio, 2017:131).

The initial plan for the study was that there would be equal gender representation in the focus groups. However, this plan was not achieved except in one focus group.

This was because there were more male than female student teachers in most of the teaching subjects who were willing to participate. Table 5.3 below shows selected demographic characteristics of student teachers.

Table 5.3: Demographic profiles of student teachers

Symbol	Major teaching subject	Status		Gender		Total
		Pre-service	In-service	Male	Female	
FG 1	Religious Education	6	0	5	1	6
FG 2	Civic Education	6	0	4	2	6
FG 3	English Language	6	0	3	3	6
FG 4	History	6	0	5	1	6
Total		24	0	17	7	24

Source: Field data, 2018 (FG = Focus group)

As indicated in Table 5.3 above, each focus group comprised six student teachers. Discussions were held successfully with four focus groups. The next section presents the symbols that were assigned to the study participants and lesson evaluation forms.

5.3 ASSIGNING SYMBOLS

The researcher used symbols to present and interpret findings. The symbols helped to conceal the identities of participant in relation to the findings of the study. This ensured confidentiality. This section presents details of the symbols used to indicate the sources of the citations or data extracts in the presentation, analysis and discussion of findings.

5.3.1 Symbols for participants

The researcher assigned symbols to all of the participants. Teacher educators were given the symbol TE. The first study participant from the teacher educators was assigned the symbol TEA. Then the remaining seven teacher educators were allocated subsequent letters of the alphabet. The supervising teachers were given the symbol SupT. Thus, the first supervising teacher was assigned the symbol SupTA while the second became SupTB. The same approach was used to allocate symbols to the remaining supervising teachers. Student teachers were allocated the

symbol StuT followed by a letter from the alphabet. Thus, the first student teacher was given the symbol StuTA.

Finally, to identify a focus group (FG) to which a student teacher belonged, symbols were assigned to the four focus groups as follows: FG1, FG2, FG3 and FG4. Student teacher StuTA under focus group 2 was labelled as FG2-StuTA while student teacher StuTD under focus group 3 was given the label FG3-StuTD. The same approach was used for the remaining focus group members. A summary of the symbols used to indicate sources of the data extracts from the participants are shown in Table 5.4 below.

Table 5.4: Summary of symbols used to indicate sources of data

Category of study participant	Number of Participants (N)	Symbol
Teacher educators	N=8	TEA, TEB to TEH
Supervising teachers	N=10	SupTA, SupTB to SupTJ
Student teachers	N= 24	StuTA, StuTB to StuTF
Student teachers' focus groups	N=4	FG1, FG2 to FG4

Source: Field data, 2018

5.3.2 Symbols for lesson evaluation forms

The researcher assigned symbols to the 24 lesson evaluation forms that were analysed. The lesson evaluation forms were assigned the symbol TEF. Then each form was assigned a number. For example, the first and second forms were labelled as TEF1 and TEF2 respectively. Having dealt with the main characteristics of the sources of the data and the symbols, the next section presents the main research findings for the study.

5.4 RESEARCH FINDINGS

In this chapter, the findings, analysis and discussion are organised according to the overarching themes that emerged from the data. In addition, sub-themes are used to illuminate the overarching themes of the study. Furthermore, earlier research findings are presented together with the new evidence from the current study where applicable. Quotations and detailed descriptions of the findings are used to achieve

what Bechhofer and Paterson (2000:160) describe as “remarkable and invaluable interpretation”. The detailed descriptions of the findings are possible because the activity theory can be used to scrutinise human activity through establishing the types of activity, participants in the activity, goals of the activity, the rules and norms prevalent in the activity (Mudavanhu, 2014:15). The researcher has used the interpretive approach to understand issues pertaining to the implementation of teaching practice from the perspectives of the participants. This is because participants in an activity are able to understand and interpret the social world in which they live (Cohen et al., 2007:21; Tracy, 2013:132). The interpretive approach allowed the researcher to provide detailed descriptions of the participants’ views and experiences of teaching practice. The next section focuses on the findings of the first three research questions.

5.4.1 Findings for the first three research questions

The first, second and third research questions were similar except that each one of them targeted a specific group of participants. Considering this, the findings for the three questions have been combined in terms of presentation, analysis and discussion to allow for comparisons across participants. This is in line with the across-case approach adopted by this study in which answers from different participants on common questions can be brought together (Patton, 2002:376; Kalimaposo, 2010:129). Except where not applicable, each aspect of teaching practice is dealt with simultaneously across all the study participants. Based on this approach, the first three research questions are combined and written as one as follows: **What are the participants’ opinions about their experiences of teaching practice implemented by the University of Zambia in secondary schools?**

To address the above question, several aspects pertaining to the implementation of teaching practice were interrogated. Findings pertaining to the above combined research question are presented, analysed and discussed in subsections 5.4.2, 5.4.3, 5.4.4 and 5.4.5.

5.4.2 Participants’ conceptualisation of teaching practice

The first question probed participants’ understanding of teaching practice and its objectives. The overriding theme that emerged was that teaching practice was a

period when a student teacher practised how to teach pupils in a class. From this theme, three sub-themes were identified. The sub-theme that directly responded to the meaning of teaching practice was to practise how to teach pupils in a school class while applying teaching methods in a class. Furthermore, to learn how to manage and control a class was also identified as a sub-theme pertaining to the objectives of teaching practice. These sub-themes together with excerpts from participants' interview comments are presented, analysed and discussed below.

5.4.2.1 To practise how to teach pupils in a school class

Findings revealed that teaching practice is a period when student teachers can practise in a classroom what they have learned in a training institution such as a university or college. This view was supported by all eight of the teacher educators. Eight out of ten supervising teachers (except SupTF & SupTJ) also supported the same view. The majority of student teachers from FG1 (StuTB & 3), FG2 (StuTA, StuTB, & StuTC), FG3 (StuTA, StuTB, StuTC, StuTD & StuTF) and FG4 (StuTA, StuTB, StuTC & StuTD) (14 out of 24) held a similar view as other participants. The following quotations illustrate the participants' understanding of teaching practice:

..., teaching practice is a period when student teachers put into practice the theories, concepts, methodologies and all the values they have acquired about teaching in a real classroom situation (TEH, interviewed on 18 July 2018).

Teaching practice is like an industrial break for the student teachers so that they can try out the teaching methods they have learned (SupTC, interviewed on 12 January 2018).

Teaching practice refers to a practical process in which student teachers go to an institution (school) to practise what they have been learning (FG4-StuTA, interviewed on 4 May 2018).

What is clear from the findings is that all the participants in the study had a clear and common understanding of the meaning of teaching practice. The participants' interpretation of teaching practice is in line with Ogonor and Badmus (2006:1), Kiggundu and Nayimuli (2009:347), Cohen et al. (2013:341) and Endeley's (2014:147) conceptualisation of teaching practice, described as a time when student teachers translate theory into practice. This is also supported by other scholars who

view it as a period when student teachers implement what they have learned in class (Atputhasamy, 2005:1; Beeth & Adadan, 2006:103; Ogonor & Badmus, 2006:1; Oluwatayo & Adebule, 2012:109; Rosemary et al., 2013:126; Owusu & Brown, 2014:25). In this study, student teachers practised in schools what they had learned at the University of Zambia.

The activity theory recognises the object of an activity as a principal element without which there cannot be an activity (Engeström & Kerosuo, 2007:337). Therefore, the object of implementing teaching practice was one of the issues investigated from the perspectives of the key informants. Participants' understanding of the object of teaching practice was critically important. Gunn et al. (2016:311) explain that the concept of the object "is the objective of the activity as understood by the person working on it". As it was explained in subsection 3.5.5, the main object of teaching practice is for student teachers to translate theory into practice. However, the success of teaching practice depends on a number of factors such as how student teachers are trained and how teaching practice itself is organised and implemented in schools. Therefore, in the next subsection, details of the two other sub-themes in support of the overriding theme under subsection 5.4.2 are presented and discussed.

5.4.2.2 To apply teaching methods in class

Five teacher educators (TEB, TEC, TED, TEF & TEH) and three supervising teachers (SupTA, SupTH & SupTI) explained that the main objective of teaching practice was for student teachers to apply teaching methods that they had learned in class. This view was expressed by two of the participants as follows:

One of the objectives is to ensure that students apply the various teaching methods that they have been taught (TED, interviewed on 7 March 2018).

To make student teachers have an understanding of teaching by putting into practice methods they have learned... (SupTH, interviewed on 10 January 2018).

The majority of the student teachers (FG1 (StuTA, ST2, StuTD & StuTE), FG2 (StuTB, StuTE & StuTF), FG3 (StuTA, StuTD & StuTF) and FG4 (StuTB, StuTC, StuTD & StuTF) (14 out of 24) also held the view that the objective of teaching

practice was for student teachers to apply different teaching methods in class. One of the participants expressed this view as follows:

Teaching practice gives a student teacher a chance to try out teaching methods in order to deliver the subject matter skilfully (FG4-StuTE, interviewed on 4 May 2018).

The views of the student teachers emphasised the importance of one becoming an effective teacher through the appropriate use of teaching methods in class. This is in line with what other scholars have considered as the main objective of teaching practice. As mentioned in Chapter 2 (literature review), Tuli and File (2009:40) explain that the main objective of teaching practice is to help a student teacher learn about different teaching skills. Baek and Ham (2009:272) add that teaching practice is a programme that student teachers engage in to sharpen their teaching skills in class.

The findings suggest that teaching practice is used by student teachers to improve their teaching skills. It supports the view that student teachers acquire teaching skills by practising in schools under the watchful eye of a qualified teacher (Baek & Ham, 2009:272). These are the skills discussed earlier in subsection 2.8.2 of Chapter 2, that supervising teachers assisted “student teachers to interpret and improve on” during teaching practice (Lefoka, 1994:9; Owusu & Brown, 2014:25; Zulu, 2015:53). This view is also supported by other scholars who argue that student teachers view teaching practice as an important aspect of their preparation for the teaching profession because it provides them with the skills of the teaching profession (Mannathoko, 2013:115; Koross, 2016:81; Kaldi & Xafakos, 2017:246).

5.4.2.3 To learn how to manage and control a class

Another sub-theme was to learn how to manage and control a class. Teacher educators (TEA & TEG), two supervising teachers (SupTH & SupTI) and some student teachers (FG2-StuTC & StuTD; FG3-StuTB, StuTE & StuTF; FG4-StuTB & StuTF) articulated the need for class management and control as an objective of teaching practice. This view was expressed as follows:

The main objectives are to..., learn classroom management and control and learn to be resourceful (TEA, 28 February 2018).

During teaching practice, we do not only focus on teaching but on the behaviour of the pupils also. There is also classroom management, that is, how to manage the pupils (SupTH, interviewed on 10 January 2018).

In as much as you are teaching, you also learn the skills on how to manage a class and other school activities (FG3-StuTB, interviewed on 26 April 2018).

This finding underscored the value that the participants attached to class management. In addition, two teacher educators (TEB & TEC) and four supervising teachers (SupTE, SupTF, SupTG & SupTH) explained that a student teacher's relationship with school staff and others was also important. Their views were:

They (student teachers) have to learn how to relate to the teaching fraternity in the school... and community members (TEB, interviewed on 16 March 2018).

It (teaching practice) enables the learner to learn how to interact with the real world of work, children and the teachers (SupTE, interviewed on 10 January 2018).

This study's findings on the objectives of teaching practice are consistent with studies conducted by Ulvik and Smith (2011:520) and Ong'ondo (2009:55). The two studies reported that putting theory into practice, improving knowledge of subject matter and skills acquisition were among the main objectives of teaching practice. The findings are also in line with the study by O'Brian et al. (2007:264), which concluded that the experience that student teachers got from teaching practice was critical. Similar findings on the acquisition of skills were noted in a study by Gujjar et al. (2010:339) in which they affirmed that teaching practice could be used as a measure to ascertain how student teachers would perform when they finally became teachers. A detailed description of how student teachers' skills or competencies are evaluated during teaching practice in this study is given in subsection 5.4.5.2.

The findings also revealed two relevant aspects to the study. The first aspect was that teaching practice was a joint activity while the second was about the increasing use of the concept 'school teaching experience' compared to 'teaching practice'. Details of these two aspects are discussed under bullet points below.

- *Teaching practice as a joint activity*

Two teacher educators (TED & TEE) explained that teaching practice was a joint activity as both teacher educators and supervising teachers worked together to implement it. One teacher educator described teaching practice as:

...an activity that is carried out by a pre-service or an in-service teacher under the guidance of a mentor and the educators who train teachers (TED, interviewed on 7 March 2018).

The description of teaching practice as a joint activity is in line with what was shared about the context of teaching practice in Chapter 3, subsection 3.4.1 of this study. The context was that teaching practice was an interactive and tripartite activity. This is because different groups of people are involved in its implementation. From the perspective of activity theory, each group of people in a collective activity has a role to play (Sannino & Nocon, 2008:327; Portnov-Neeman & Barak, 2013:10). The division of labour as one of the key elements of the activity theory helps to ensure that tasks are shared among people (Postholm, 2015:45). It is in this collective activity, namely teaching practice that student teachers nurture their skills and personality (Sannino, Daniels & Gutierrez, 2009:1).

- *The increasing use of the concept 'school teaching experience'*

The second aspect was that there was a growing trend among teacher educators and supervising teachers to use the concept 'school teaching experience' as opposed to 'teaching practice'. Two teacher educators (TEE & TEF) and three supervising teachers (SupTE, SupTD & SupTI) confirmed the growing preference for the concept 'school teaching experience'. Teacher educator TEF explained that the concept 'teaching practice' was narrower in scope as it implied confining a student teacher to teaching in class only while 'school teaching experience' was wider as it included other activities. This view was expressed as follows:

... we have now changed to school teaching experience because teaching practice was very specific, confined to classroom performance. But school teaching experience refers to all that goes on in school (TEF, interviewed on 10 March 2018).

The concept 'teaching practice' is fading away and we now have school teaching experience because school teaching experience encompasses a lot of things away from the classroom (SupTE, interviewed on 10 January 2018).

Having dealt with the participants' understanding of the meaning and objectives of teaching practice, the next section focuses on the findings pertaining to participants' views on the preparations for teaching practice at the University of Zambia and schools.

5.4.3 Participants' views on the preparatory activities for teaching practice

In order to understand how the University of Zambia implemented teaching practice in schools, all of the participants were asked questions pertaining to the activities that student teachers undertook in preparation for teaching practice both at the University of Zambia and in schools. The preparatory activities were examined in line with what was stated in Chapter 3, subsection 3.4.2, that teaching practice was a process. Findings on the preparatory activities undertaken by the University of Zambia are presented first, followed by those undertaken by schools.

The overriding theme that emerged was that preparatory activities for teaching practice exposed student teachers to teaching-related tasks. Two sub-themes were identified namely: learning about foundation, content and methods courses and orientation of student teachers to the school (work) environment. Details of these sub-themes are presented below.

5.4.3.1 Learning about foundation, content and methods courses

The first sub-theme was learning about foundation, content and methods courses. Findings revealed that the initial preparatory activities started in the first year of study. Student teachers were introduced to foundation and content courses in the first and second year respectively. In the third year, student teachers were taught teaching methods courses followed by peer teaching. These learning activities as outlined were confirmed by all of the teacher educators.

The findings indicated that while the School of Education taught both content and teaching methods in Religious Education and Civic Education, content in other teaching subjects was taught by other faculties. This finding was highlighted by five

out of eight teacher educators (TEB, TED, TEE, TEF & TEH). One teacher educator reported that:

In some teaching subjects, students do not learn the subject content in the School of Education. Two subjects are taught in the School of Education, namely Religious Education and Civic Education (TEH, interviewed on 18 July 2018).

Findings revealed that in the teaching methods courses, student teachers were taught how to prepare lesson plans and schemes of work. This was highlighted by all of the teacher educators and two student teachers (FG1-StuTA & FG2-StuTE). They expressed this view as follows:

We teach them how to prepare lesson plans and teaching aids. We also teach them how to prepare schemes of work and records of work (TEC, interviewed on 1 March 2018).

The most important thing that we were taught was how to prepare a lesson plan, records of work and schemes of work (FG1-StuTA, interviewed on 18 April 2018).

Lesson demonstration was another aspect that was highlighted by FGs 1, 2 and 3. In FGs 2 and 3, participants reported that teacher educators conducted lesson demonstrations while in FG1 they were conducted by an in-service teacher. The two varying views on lesson demonstrations are:

I remember in our first lesson, a lecturer came and demonstrated how to conduct a map study... (FG3-StuTE, interviewed on 26 April 2018).

The lecturers used to ask an in-service teacher within the group to demonstrate how a lesson should be taught (FG1-StuTE, interviewed on 18 April 2018).

Findings revealed that after the lesson demonstrations had been conducted, the next activity was peer teaching. Peer teaching was overwhelmingly highlighted by all of the teacher educators and the majority of student teachers (17 out of 24). The value of peer teaching was expressed as follows:

..., we have a regulation now ... that any student who has not done peer teaching cannot go for school experience (TEH, interviewed on 18 July 2018).

Peer teaching sessions are important because they give us a platform where we can teach fellow students. In this way we start building confidence before teaching practice (FG1-StuTD, interviewed on 18 April 2018).

From the foregoing findings, it can be concluded that the initial preparation for teaching practice focused mainly on learning about the foundation and content courses before teaching methods courses were introduced. The findings seem to suggest that lesson demonstration was the first practical teaching activity that student teachers were exposed to before being engaged in peer teaching. This study's findings are consistent with Lind's (2004:1), which established that it was common practice for student teachers to obtain professional knowledge during their university study after which they put that knowledge into practice. Findings also showed that peer teaching did not only help student teachers to gain confidence in teaching, but it was also a prerequisite for one to do teaching practice.

5.4.3.2 Orientation of student teachers to school (work) environment

Findings revealed that supervising teachers provided orientation activities for student teachers on teaching practice. The orientation took three forms. One form was a student teacher was introduced to staff and pupils while the second form was that student teachers were briefed on administrative matters and on what they would be doing. The third form consisted of the student teacher observing an experienced teacher's lesson.

Three out of ten supervising teachers (SupTB, SupTD & SupTG) reported that student teachers were introduced to members of staff at a staff meeting. All the student teachers confirmed that they were introduced to staff in the schools. One supervising teacher said that:

The first thing is that the student teachers are invited to the opening staff meeting where they are introduced to staff (SupTD, interviewed on 15 January 2018).

The second form of orientation was that the student teachers were briefed on administrative matters such as school rules and other related matters. Student teachers acknowledged undertaking this form of orientation. One supervising teacher commented explicitly on this form of orientation:

We also orient them to what we have here. We give them the scheme of work, our records of work and introduce them to the teaching material we use (SupTH, interviewed on 10 January 2018).

The third form of orientation was that student teachers were required to observe at least a lesson being taught by an experienced teacher whose class they would take over. This was confirmed by all the supervising teachers except one (SupTF) who claimed that little attention was given to this. The same supervising teacher argued that:

Most of the students that come have been exposed to peer teaching. And most of the time they spend only 3 weeks here and so there isn't much need for orientation (SupTF, interviewed on 9 January 2018).

Findings revealed that lesson observations normally took place during the first week of the teaching practice session. This was echoed by six out of ten supervising teachers (SupTA, SupTE, SupTG, SupTH, SupTI & SupTJ). However, the period and number of times student teachers observed lessons seemed to vary. The following statements bear testimony to this:

They normally observe the class teacher for a week (SupTE, interviewed on 10 January 2018).

Student teachers only observe for one day and the following day they start teaching (SupTF, interviewed on 9 January 2018).

Most of the student teachers reported that they observed a class teacher's lesson during the first week of their reporting at school for teaching practice. However, not all the student teachers observed a lesson. One student teacher who did not observe a class teacher's lesson explained that:

The class teacher who was supposed to do the lesson demonstration was out and so I just took up the class because the time table was already made (FG3-StuTD, interviewed on 26 April 2018).

This contradicts Koc's (2011:1983) findings that during teaching practice student teachers observe experienced teachers' lessons and do administrative work to get ready for the teaching profession. Findings also revealed that although student

teachers observed lessons, some of them were not satisfied with what they experienced. This view was evident in the following remark:

The lesson the head of the section taught was done hurriedly and so she did not do much. I did not observe anything (FG2-StuTA, interviewed on 23 April 2018).

The findings suggest that the second form of orientation was very important to student teachers because it focused mainly on what they would be doing during teaching practice. However, as the findings emphasise, the extent to which student teachers observed class teachers' lessons tended to vary. The findings imply that there are no standard procedures for initiating student teachers into teaching practice. Further, orientation activities in schools were not standardised. This implies that the student teachers' experiences of the orientation activities were likely to vary from one school to the other.

It must be mentioned that student teachers need help and guidance during teaching practice. As acknowledged earlier in the literature, personal adjustments from being a student teacher to becoming a teacher can be a big challenge (Goh & Mathews, 2011:96). In addition, the vulnerability experienced during the transition from student to teacher "leads to the loss of a comfortable sense of familiarity with oneself" (Caires et al., 2010:17). Therefore, supervising teachers should provide student teachers with the necessary help.

Overall, the findings seem to suggest that supervising teachers were able to help the student teachers settle quickly into their new roles at school. This is evidenced by the positive comments that many student teachers made in relation to the highlighted orientation activities. This new evidence agrees with the previous findings by Zulu (2015:53) who established that supervising teachers were instrumental in helping student teachers settle down quickly.

Findings revealed that student teachers did not dedicate enough time to co-curricular activities. A teacher educator commented on co-curricular activities as follows:

We do not do so much in preparing them for co-curricular activities (TEH, interviewed on 18 July 2018).

All the focus groups were aware of the need to learn about co-curricular activities but confirmed doing little in this area. The findings are consistent with a study conducted by Tang (2003:485) in Hong Kong that confirmed that student teachers' experience was overly narrow as it was chiefly confined to classroom teaching. Suffice to state that there is a need for the University of Zambia to incorporate these activities in their training schedule because they are part of the curriculum.

Another important finding was that the University of Zambia did not have a demonstration school. One teacher educator commented on how a demonstration school is used:

The student teachers are given an opportunity to observe experienced teachers...In the end, they hold discussions with the pupils and the teachers (TEF, interviewed on 10 March 2018).

According to teacher educator TEF, a demonstration school provides an opportunity to student teachers to observe and learn from experienced teachers. Therefore, student teachers would benefit greatly if they were exposed to teaching at a demonstration school. Findings suggest that lack of a demonstration school denied student teachers enough exposure to a real classroom situation. A demonstration school provides ideal conditions for learning how to teach: much more so than a university does. Overall, findings point to the fact that the absence of a demonstration school denies student teachers the opportunity to learn about some of the best practices in teaching from experienced teachers.

While the foregoing subsection focused mainly on outlining the preparatory activities for teaching practice, the next section focuses on the participants' views on how well the selected preparatory activities for teaching practice were being implemented.

5.4.4 Participants' views on the implementation of teaching practice

This section presents findings pertaining to the participants' views on the implementation of teaching practice by the University of Zambia. The researcher asked participants questions pertaining to the organisation of teaching practice (e.g. frequency, timing and duration), arrangements for teaching practice with schools and the actual implementation of the teaching practice in schools. The researcher used

multiple questions and data collection methods to probe the implementation of teaching practice to understand dialogues, multiple perspectives of the participants and networks of interacting activity systems (i.e. the University of Zambia and the schools) (Daniels, 2004:123; Engeström, 2001:135; Greenhouse, 2013:406). Engeström (2001:136) and Mudavanhu (2014:57) argue that it is possible to gather multiple perspectives because activity systems are multi-voiced. The use of the activity theory in this study is appropriate because it can be used to explain, scrutinise and interpret human activity (Razak et al. (2018:19).

The overriding theme that emerged was participants' experiences of teaching practice implemented by the University of Zambia. From this theme, four sub-themes were identified as follows: teaching practice was implemented over a short period, student teachers had adequate knowledge of subject matter, student teachers were weak in teaching methods, and there were no prior arrangements made for teaching practice with schools. Details of these sub-themes are presented below.

5.4.4.1 Teaching practice was implemented over a short period

The first sub-theme was that teaching practice was implemented over a short period. Findings revealed that teaching practice was held once per year (TED & TEG) at the end of the third year of study (TEA, TEB, TEE & TEH) for a specific cohort of student teachers. One of the teacher educators commented on the teaching practice period as follows:

Since we started the term system, they (student teachers) go for teaching practice at the end of their third year (TEB, interviewed on 16 March 2018).

On the duration of teaching practice, teacher educators indicated that it lasted six weeks. Findings revealed that the duration for the actual teaching practice varied (perhaps unintended) from one school to another. This was confirmed by both teacher educators and supervising teachers. This is illustrated in the following quotations:

The normal situation is one term but due to disturbances to the university calendar, they (student teachers) go for six weeks or if they are lucky two months (TEA, interviewed on 28 February 2018).

We just taught for 3 weeks as there was no space (rooms) for us to continue (FG1-StuTD, interviewed on 18 April 2018).

Findings disclosed that all of the participants except teacher educators TEC and TED felt that the duration for teaching practice was inadequate. The following quotations support the participants' views on the duration of teaching practice:

Six weeks is absolutely not enough (TEH, interviewed on 18 July 2018).

When I went to school, I started teaching in the second week. I observed the first two lessons and started teaching the following week. So, time was not enough (FG4-StuTC, interviewed on 4 May 2018).

The findings seem to suggest that the amount of time spent on teaching practice varied among student teachers. Findings revealed also that the time they spent on teaching practice was not enough. Some participants attributed this to other school activities that interfered with the teaching-learning process.

5.4.4.2 Student teachers had adequate knowledge of subject matter

The second sub-theme was that student teachers had adequate knowledge of subject matter. Findings revealed that both teacher educators and supervising teachers (except SupTH) believed that student teachers had a good understanding of the subject matter. This view was expressed as follows:

I must mention that student teachers are ready in terms of understanding the subject matter (TEC, interviewed on 1 March 2019).

In terms of content they (student teachers) are very good. They have an understanding of the subject matter (SupTE, interviewed on 10 January 2018).

The researcher also explored student teachers' views on their knowledge of subject matter during teaching practice. The majority of the student teachers (FG1 (StuTA, StuTC & StuTD), FG2 (StuTA, StuTB, StuTC, StuTD & StuTF), FG3 (StuTA, StuTE & StuTF) and FG4 (StuTA, StuTB, StuTD & StuTE) (15 out of 24) said they were knowledgeable about the subject matter. However, the rest of the student teachers stated that they had challenges with the subject matter. The view supporting student teachers' readiness regarding knowledge of subject matter was captured as follows:

I think for me I was very ready because the theory and the practical part we had already undertaken helped me (FG3-StuTE, interviewed on 26 April 2018).

Overall, the findings seem to indicate that most of the student teachers were knowledgeable about the subject matter. This was confirmed by the majority of the participants.

5.4.4.3 Student teachers had inadequate knowledge and skills in teaching methodology

The third theme was that student teachers had inadequate knowledge and skills in teaching methodology. Teacher educators TEH and TEE expressed their dissatisfaction with student teachers' selection and application of teaching methods while two of them (TEG & TEB) expressed neutrality. Teacher educators TEA and TEF did not clearly indicate their opinion on the same while teacher educators TEC and TED bemoaned student teachers' failure to prepare good lesson plans. One teacher educator commented on the student teachers' inadequate knowledge and skills in teaching methodology:

Many student teachers understand the content but a number of them struggle to teach it because we spend very little time with them on methodology (TEH, interviewed on 18 July 2018).

Another teacher educator described how he stopped a student teacher from continuing to teach a lesson for failure to use appropriate teaching methods:

Actually, I did not even observe the lesson the moment I saw what she was doing. So, I stopped observing the lesson... I had a full day teaching her what she should have been doing because she was doing things wrongly (TEE, interviewed on 16 March 2018).

Most of the supervising teachers observed that student teachers had inadequate knowledge and skills in teaching methodology. The student teachers were reported to be experiencing challenges in sharing information and knowledge with pupils. Two supervising teachers commented:

They (student teachers) do have the subject matter but it is just that they do not know the procedures (methods) on how to present (a lesson) (SupTJ, interviewed on 26 January 2018).

With teaching skill there is a problem...some of the students do not do a good job with delivery in class (SupTB, interviewed on 9 January 2018).

One supervising teacher wondered how a student teacher could use group work incorrectly:

How can one use a group work method in a class of over 50 pupils with only five textbooks at his disposal? (SupTC, interviewed on 12 January 2018).

Most student teachers said that they could not state clearly how they fared in teaching methods as they had not seen the teacher educators' lesson observation comments. Two student teachers (FG3-StuTE, FG4-StuTA & StuTB), however, claimed that they were conversant with teaching methods while student teachers FG1-StuTA and FG3-StuTB admitted that they were unable to use teaching methods appropriately. The latter's view was evident in the following quotations:

When it came to methods of teaching, it was a challenge (FG3-StuTB, interviewed on 26 April 2018).

In (teaching subject X), we were taught to use one teaching method for different topics (FG1-StuTB, interviewed on 18 April 2018).

The findings disclose that student teachers' inadequate knowledge and skills in teaching methodology were of two types. One such type was that student teachers displayed limited knowledge of teaching methods while the other was failure to apply appropriate teaching methods in class as highlighted by TEE, SupTJ and FG1-StuTB. The student teachers' inadequate knowledge and skills of teaching methods could be attributed to the fact that they were not exposed to many teaching methods as reported by one student teacher (FG1-StuTB) and further, the limited time student teachers had for practice during peer teaching (See subsection 5.6.1.1 for details). This limited the student teachers' choice and subsequent application of appropriate teaching methods.

This study's findings are in line with studies by Caires et al. (2010:17), Chunmei and Chuanjun (2015:235) and Masaiti and Manchishi (2011:319). The study by Caires et al. (2010:17), for example, established that student teachers experience challenges in using teaching methodology and strategies. All three of the studies above and the current study attribute the student teachers' failure to select and use teaching methods appropriately to the little time allocated to didactic courses, which makes it difficult for the student teachers to acquire the necessary knowledge and skills in lesson delivery. The findings of this study are also in line with Ong'ondo and Jwan's (2009:517) study that established that some universities spend more time preparing student teachers in theory at the expense of practice, as is the case with the University of Zambia (see Simuyaba et al., 2015:92). Considering this, student teachers fail to implement quality-oriented pedagogies, such as learner-centred approaches (Chunmei & Chuanjun, 2015:235).

The findings also revealed that the lack of adequate knowledge and skills in teaching methodology among student teachers was exacerbated by poor lesson planning skills. While half of the teacher educators (TEA, TEB, TED & TEF) said that student teachers displayed good lesson planning skills during training at the University of Zambia, two of them (TEC & TEE) stated that student teachers exhibited good lesson planning skills during teaching practice. Two teacher educators (TEG & TEH), however, could neither deny nor confirm this aspect. One of the two teacher educators who seemed to have been checking on student teachers' lesson plans during teaching practice, unlike others, said:

They (student teachers) are not ready. Each time I have gone to supervise them especially in the recent past, I have found that some of the lesson plans have some omissions (TEC, interviewed on 1 March 2018).

Supervising teachers SupTC, SupTD, SupTH and SupTI indicated clearly that the majority of student teachers were not familiar with preparing a good lesson plan during teaching practice. One supervising teacher explained that:

In terms of lesson planning, students are usually not ready in that instead of presenting their lesson plan for guidance, they would want us to demonstrate by writing a lesson plan for them (SupTD, interviewed on 15 January 2018).

Findings also revealed that the lesson plan formats for the University of Zambia and those for schools were distinctly different. Differences in the format of the lesson plan were confirmed by all the participants. This view is captured in the following quotations:

... every year we see that students come with different formats; there is no standard format (SupTC, interviewed on 12 January 2018).

... here we are taught a certain format but when we go out there we find a different one (FG2-StuTD, interviewed on 23 April 2018).

Findings suggest that most teacher educators do not pay as much attention to the lesson plan during teaching practice as they do while training student teachers (see Table 5.6 & subsection 5.9.2 for details). This is confirmed by the fact that, apart from two of them (TEC & TEE), the teacher educators commented on the lesson plan with specific reference to the period prior to teaching practice. Giving less attention to lesson plans during teaching practice contradicts Komba and Kira (2013:1580) and Wilson's (2014:25) view that lesson plans are important and that they need to be examined during teaching practice. Findings have also shown that the University of Zambia and schools do not have a definite policy on the format of the lesson plan for teaching practice. This was evident in the use of two different lesson plan formats by student teachers during teaching practice. This could affect evaluation standards.

5.4.4.4 No prior arrangements were made for teaching practice with schools

Another sub-theme that emerged was that no prior arrangements were made for teaching practice by the University of Zambia with schools. The only 'arrangement' was a letter introducing student teachers to schools. This was confirmed by all the participants. Views in this regard were expressed by some participants as follows:

I wouldn't say we make formal arrangements as a university with the schools (TEH, interviewed on 18 July 2018).

... there are no arrangements made with the University of Zambia other than the letter that a student teacher comes with (SupTD, interviewed on 15 January 2018).

... there were no arrangements between the schools and the University of Zambia
(FG4-StuTC, interviewed on 4 May 2018).

Except for teacher educators TED and TEG, and supervising teacher SupTI, the rest of the participants said that the arrangements that the University of Zambia made with schools for teaching practice were inadequate. Findings revealed that the inadequacy of the arrangements had sometimes resulted in student teachers failing to find a school for teaching practice. Two participants expressed student teachers' failure to find schools for teaching practice as follows:

In the past 2 years, there have been more and more students complaining that they have not been accepted in schools (TEH, interviewed on 18 July 2018).

I had to look for a school myself. I remember taking letters to 3 schools but did not get any response (FG4-StuTC, interviewed on 4 May 2018).

It appears that all the teacher educators and student teachers were dissatisfied with the period of six weeks for teaching practice. Similar sentiments were expressed in a study conducted by Simuyaba et al. (2015:92). The short period for teaching practice is not in line with what the Government of the Republic of Zambia, through the MoGE, prescribes as a minimum period for teaching practice. According to the Zambia Education Curriculum Framework of 2012, teaching practice is expected to last not less than one full term (approximately 14 weeks) (MoESVTEE, 2012:49). Findings in this study clearly indicate that the duration of teaching practice at the University of Zambia is among the shortest when compared with that of other countries whose organisation of teaching practice was presented in the literature review for this study. Findings suggest that a longer period of teaching practice helps student teachers to develop professional skills and subject content. As argued in Chapter 1 section 1.1, the more time that student teachers spend with quality practising teachers, the better prepared they might be as future teachers (Dusto, 2014:7).

Regarding student teachers' knowledge of subject matter and readiness to apply teaching methods appropriately in class, it appears as though both the teacher educators and supervising teachers held the view that student teachers had adequate knowledge of their respective teaching subjects, which is consistent with

findings by Göcer (2013:125) that student teachers demonstrated knowledge of subject matter during teaching practice.

However, the findings indicated that student teachers did not apply teaching methods appropriately in class. This view was echoed by teacher educators and supervising teachers as well as some student teachers. This study's findings are consistent with the findings in the literature. According to Chunmei and Chuanjun (2015:235), and Caires et al. (2010:17), student teachers experienced challenges in teaching methodology and strategies. Göcer's (2013:125) findings also revealed that student teachers experienced challenges in sharing information and knowledge with pupils. In this study, the findings revealed that student teachers displayed limited knowledge of teaching methods and were unable to apply teaching methods appropriately in class. The student teachers' failure to apply teaching methodology and strategies appropriately contradicts the activity theory, which postulates that the subject (student teacher) should use the tools, namely teaching aids to achieve the set objectives of the activity (Mtika, 2008:215; Postholm, 2015:45). This study established that student teachers experience difficulties in finding suitable materials (tools) for teaching practice (see subsection 5.6.1.2). This implies that when suitable materials are not available, a student teacher may not achieve the lesson objectives.

The findings also revealed that the University of Zambia did not make prior arrangements for teaching practice with schools apart from an introductory letter that they gave student teachers who had to look for a school themselves. Because there were no arrangements made in advance, the implementation of teaching was not done in an orderly manner. This suggests that the University of Zambia and the schools did not jointly plan the implementation of teaching practice and arrange the placement of student teachers. This affected student teachers who faced problems in finding schools willing to accept them for teaching practice.

Some studies have established that the unwillingness of schools to accept student teachers for teaching practice results in student teachers experiencing placement difficulties. In a study conducted by El Kadri and Roth (2015:2), it was shown that some schools were simply unwilling to accept student teachers. Kadri and Roth's findings coincide with the view of one student teacher (FG4-StuTC), who took the letter to three schools and was declined by all.

The foregoing section has spoken to the earlier subsection 5.4.3, which mostly documented the preparations that were made by the University of Zambia and schools for teaching practice. In this section, participants have expressed their opinions on the effectiveness of these preparatory activities for teaching practice. In the next section, findings on the participants' views relating to the supervision and evaluation of student teachers on teaching practice are presented and discussed.

5.4.5 Participants' views on supervision and evaluation of student teachers

To gain further insight into the effectiveness of teaching practice implemented by the University of Zambia in schools, the researcher sought views from both the teacher educators and supervising teachers on how they supervised and evaluated student teachers. The overriding theme that emerged from the findings was that supervision and evaluation of student teachers were not efficient or well-coordinated. From this theme, five sub-themes were identified as follows: major focus areas for evaluation, assessment criteria for student teachers, non-provision of professional training to supervising teachers, lack of joint reviews of the teaching practice programme and the effectiveness of the teaching practice programme. Details of these sub-themes are presented below.

5.4.5.1 Major focus areas for evaluation

The effectiveness of a programme such as teaching practice can be established by gaining insight into the areas that are examined. To evaluate a student teacher, teacher educators used a lesson evaluation form, which consisted of areas or items against which a student teacher was evaluated.

The findings revealed individual preferences in terms of focus areas for evaluation among teacher educators. However, some focus areas appeared to be more popular than others. Most of the teacher educators (TEA, TEB, TEC, TED, TEF & TEG) (6 out of 8) focused on the student teacher's knowledge of subject matter during lesson observation. The methodology used to teach was another priority area mentioned by the majority of teacher educators (TEA, TEB, TEC, TED, TEE & TEH) (6 out of 8). While teacher educators TEA, TEE and TEF indicated introduction to a lesson, teacher educators TEA, TEC and TEE indicated a student teacher's interaction with pupils as other areas of focus. Teacher educators TEB, TEE and TEG identified the

way student teachers dressed as another focus area. The areas of focus with the least support were as follows: conclusion of a lesson (TEA & TEB), lesson plan (TEA), clarity of speech (TEB), time management and the use of visual aids (TEF).

The findings suggest that teacher educators paid more attention to the content (subject matter) and teaching methods when evaluating a student teacher's lesson. The following quotation reflects part of what has been presented above:

We look at the introduction, lesson development, use of visual aids, objectives, the personality of the teacher, and pace of the lesson ... (TEF, interviewed on 10 March 2018).

Conversely, the lesson plan was a focus area that teacher educators seemed not to pay much attention to. This was evident in the following comment:

The reality is that most of the time we don't even look at the lesson plan before they teach. We observe (lesson) first, then call them. The discussion lasts for five to ten minutes (TEF, interviewed on 10 March 2018).

Half of the supervising teachers (SupTA, SupTD, SupTF, SupTH & SupTI) paid attention to teaching methods. Subject content was another focus area highlighted, also by half of the supervising teachers (SupTA, SupTC, SupTH, SupTI & SupTJ). One supervising teacher reported that:

The area we focus on is lesson presentation. For example, how has the student delivered the material? Have they used the correct pedagogical skills? (SupTD, interviewed on 15 January 2018).

The other areas of focus were identified as follows: class management (SupTC, SupTD, SupTH & SupTJ), classroom interaction (SupTB, SupTG & SupTI), time management and the extent to which pupils were following a lesson (SupTB and SupTH). One supervising teacher commented on classroom management:

We observe if they are able to manage the pupils as they are teaching (SupTH, interviewed on 10 January 2018).

Findings revealed that most of the participants focused more on the teaching methods and appropriateness of the subject content during lesson observation. Apart

from the above two focus areas, both teacher educators and supervising teachers differed greatly in the areas they focused on. For example, whereas supervising teachers identified class management as a focus area, none of the teacher educators mentioned it.

This suggests that although both the teacher educators and supervising teachers were supposed to use the same lesson evaluation form, their areas of focus were largely different. In this regard, the findings seem to indicate that there is no agreement on the areas to focus on during lesson observation. The implication of having different focus areas for lesson observation is that this may compromise assessment standards. In light of this finding, it is possible that two different people could award two different grades to the same student teacher observed because they are focusing on different aspects of the lesson.

Another important finding was that teacher educators did not pay much attention to the lesson plan or time management during lesson observation. This was evident because each one of these areas was only mentioned by one teacher educator. In addition, a student teacher reported that:

The lecturer who observed me seemed to be in a hurry. He only observed me for about 20 minutes ... (FG2-StuTB, interviewed on 23 April 2018).

The researcher considers both the lesson plan and time management to be critical to conducting a lesson. The lesson plan is an important tool which both the teacher educator and student teacher must have. This is because it acts as a guide to teaching. However, as claimed by FG2-StuTB in the above quotation, the lesson plan and time management appear to be insignificant to a teacher educator who leaves a class before the end of the lesson. The little regard for the student teacher's time management in class is further confirmed by one teacher educator's (TEH) statement about lesson evaluation of student teachers (see subsection 5.4.5.2 below).

5.4.5.2 Assessment criteria for student teachers

The second sub-theme was assessment criteria for student teachers. The researcher probed the frequency of lesson observations, time spent on lesson observations, and the tool used to evaluate student teachers on teaching practice. Tools such as

'lesson evaluation forms' (Wilson, 2014:25) and lesson plans are important in the activity theory because when they are used correctly, they can enhance the implementation of teaching practice. This is because tools mediate the interaction between an individual and an object (Hardman, 2008:68). For example, a well-prepared lesson plan could help a student teacher achieve the objectives of a lesson more effectively. Conversely, a poorly prepared lesson plan may adversely affect lesson delivery and pupils' learning. This is why Komba and Kira (2013:158) recommend that both lesson plans and class teaching by student teachers must be examined. In relation to the activity theory, the lesson evaluation form is a useful tool for assessing the performance of a student teacher on teaching practice (Hashim & Jones, 2007:n.p). Teacher educators use lesson evaluation forms to assess student teachers' knowledge and skills in lesson delivery.

Findings revealed that teacher educators only observed student teachers' lessons once during teaching practice. In addition, teacher educators spent little time on lesson observations. Here is what some participants said on the frequency of lesson observations:

There are too many students to see in a very short period of time. So, we see them once... (TEA, interviewed on 28 February 2018).

I will be very frank with you. Normally it is just once (SupTI, interviewed on 4 April 2018).

On the time teacher educators spent on observing a student teacher's lesson to evaluate them, some participants narrated as follows:

I say hit and run because we go in a class and talk to them for 20 minutes and then leave (TEH, interviewed on 18 July 2018).

When the lecturer came, he was too busy to finish observing the whole lesson. He observed for 30 minutes and left (FG2-StuTD, interviewed on 23 April 2018).

The findings that teacher educators did not spend much time observing student teachers' lessons are consistent with Ong'ondo and Borg's (2011:515) study which established that the effectiveness of teaching practice hung in the balance as supervision was hurriedly done because there are too many students in the field.

One teacher educator (TEH) described the current teaching practice supervision by the University of Zambia as a 'hit and run' affair which had led to indiscipline among student teachers. Once teacher educators had completed lesson observations, some student teachers tended to relax or abandon teaching practice. This was confirmed by five out of eight teacher educators (TEA, TEE, TEF, TEG & TEH). This view was evident through the following remark:

In one school we actually found students had gone away because they had been observed in one subject (TEE, interviewed on 16 March 2018).

Supervising teachers also indicated the frequency with which they supervised and evaluated student teachers on teaching practice. Supervising teachers SupTB, SupTD, SupTG and SupTI stated that they observed student teachers only once, while SupTE, SupTF and SupTH said they did it twice. Only two supervising teachers, SupTJ and SupTA, reported a higher frequency of supervision and evaluation. It can be concluded that many of the supervising teachers supervised and evaluated student teachers once only. Some supervising teachers (SupTF & SupTI) attributed the limited number of supervision and evaluation sessions to the short period for teaching practice.

The last question was about teacher educators and supervising teachers' views on the effectiveness of the lesson evaluation form. Seven out of eight teacher educators (except TEF) considered the lesson evaluation form ineffective. However, all but one supervising teacher (STE) found the lesson evaluation form effective.

Four teacher educators (TEA, TEB, TED & TEE) identified a weakness in the lesson evaluation form. They observed that allocation of marks or scores using the scale that was provided on the form was rather difficult because scores did not translate into a grade. This observation was also supported by the statement on the second page of the lesson evaluation form itself (See appendix J) which read, in part, "The categories are not equally weighted. Therefore, the total does not necessarily translate into a grade". One teacher educator claimed that such a statement was merely an excuse to cover up the difficulty teacher educators experience in using it by saying:

That statement is just there to protect ourselves because of the duration the students are in school and the number of times we observe them. Because of that, we can't confidently come up with a grade (TEH, interviewed on 18 July 2018).

Both teacher educators TEC and TEH and all the supervising teachers noted that while the lesson evaluation form did not include some important aspects such as co-curriculum activities, it had unimportant items such as dress code (TEC). In addition, the lesson evaluation form was described as 'restrictive' in that it could only be used once for lesson observation (SupTD). It appeared that due to the inadequacies identified in the lesson evaluation form, some teacher educators 'allowed' supervising teachers (TED) to use their own (school) lesson evaluation forms. In addition, some departments at the University of Zambia had devised their own lesson evaluation forms (TEG & TEH). The foregoing arguments were expressed as follows:

When we go to the school, I personally use the same lesson evaluation form... Sometimes they use their own forms (TED interviewed on 7 March 2018).

I think the instrument seems to be weak for some departments in the school. They have devised their own lesson evaluation form (TEH, interviewed on 18 July 2018).

Most of the teacher educators (7 out of 8) were not satisfied with the lesson evaluation form because of the inclusion and omission of some assessment items. The supervising teachers agreed with the teacher educators' stand on the omission of co-curricular activities from the assessment items. Although the majority of the supervising teachers (nine out of ten) were generally satisfied with the University of Zambia's lesson evaluation form, the findings suggest that the lesson evaluation form is not effective. In addition, using different lesson evaluation forms to assess student teachers could compromise evaluation standards.

5.4.5.3 Non-provision of professional training or advice to supervising teachers

Teacher educators were asked whether they provided professional training or advice to supervising teachers on how to supervise and evaluate student teachers on teaching practice. None of the teacher educators did so. Supervising acknowledged this. One teacher educator commented:

No, that does not happen. I have been in school supervising many times and I don't even meet the teacher (TEH, interviewed on 18 July 2018).

One supervising teacher expressed their desire for training as follows:

They do not give us guidance as to what they expect us to do. ... It is better they come to train us or tell us what they want us to achieve with the student teachers (SupTC, interviewed on 12 January 2018).

It seems that the teacher educators do not provide any professional training or advice to supervising teachers on how to supervise and evaluate student teachers. This finding is supported by earlier findings by Robinson (2016:19), which indicated that efforts to help supervising teachers acquire proficiency in the supervisory work were inadequate. This is probably why supervising teacher SupTG expressed the need for training or advice in the supervision of student teachers so that they could contribute effectively to the implementation of teaching practice.

Further, findings seem to suggest that there are no readily available guidelines on the role that supervising teachers should play in teaching practice. Suffice to say that even in the interview with the participants, none of them ever referred to or intimated that they were guided on the supervising teachers' role in teaching practice.

The researcher also asked the teacher educators and supervising teachers to discuss the kind of help they rendered to student teachers on teaching practice. Although teacher educators provided help to student teachers, it was largely unclear and inadequate. Out of the eight teacher educators, only three of them were specific and clear about the kind of help they rendered to student teachers. The help they rendered was related to subject matter, methodology and assessment (TEB), lesson presentation (TEC) and teaching aids (TED). Further, the findings revealed that the teacher educators' failure to provide adequate help to student teachers was attributed to the little time allocated to the teaching practice programme. The following quotation illustrates these findings:

Unfortunately, very little help is given because we have no time to sit with a student (TEE, interviewed on 16 March 2018).

Supervising teachers also gave an account of the help they offer student teachers. The help included securing teaching materials (SupTB, SupTC & SupTF), providing ideas on how to write effective lesson plans (SupTD, SupTE & SupTI), and indicating weaknesses in their teaching and helping them to find solutions (SupTG, SupTJ & SupTI). The following quotations express the preceding findings:

Sometimes we help in arranging teaching materials for the student teachers
(SupTB, interviewed on 9 January 2018).

We observe student teachers' lessons and advise them in areas where they appear to be weak (SupTG, interviewed on 8 January 2018).

Student teachers also outlined the help they received from both teacher educators and supervising teachers. Teacher educators mainly offered encouraging remarks about what they were doing. Most student teachers (16 out of 24) received help such as how to manage a class (FG2-StuTB, StuTC & StuTF) and how to write effective lesson plans (FG1-StuTA & StuTD; FG2-StuTB; FG3-StuTB, StuTD, StuTE & StuTF; FG4-StuTB, StuTC, StuTD & StuTF) from the supervising teachers and found this useful.

It appears student teachers did not receive as much help from the teacher educators as they did from supervising teachers. One probable reason is that teacher educators spent little time at the schools they visited. This fact was acknowledged by teacher educators themselves. Failure of teacher educators to provide help to student teachers on teaching practice contradicts the view held by Cuenca et al. (2011:1068) and Allen et al. (2013:122) that teacher educators were better placed to help student teachers link the university-based content and the practical knowledge of teaching.

5.4.5.4 Lack of joint reviews of the teaching practice programme

Another sub-theme that was identified was that there was a lack of joint review of the teaching practice programme between the University of Zambia and schools. Almost all the teacher educators (except teacher educator THE) confirmed that the University of Zambia did not have joint reviews of its teaching practice programme with schools. Teacher educator TEB explained that it was 'quite difficult to do that because the schools are in far-flung areas of the country'. Supervising teachers also

confirmed that they did not review the teaching practice programme with teacher educators. Extracts from the interviews to support these findings are as follows:

No, we don't hold any review of teaching practice with schools (TEG, interviewed on 5 February 2018).

No, they do not do that (review) (SupTC, interviewed on 12 January 2018).

The non-review of the teaching practice programme between the University of Zambia and schools has led to new initiatives. For example, two departments at the University of Zambia and some schools have been reviewing teaching practice separately. The following extracts support this view:

No, we do not do it (review) with the schools but within the department and with the students when they report back for their fourth year (TEG, interviewed on 5 February 2018).

We don't (review jointly). We have never done that but as a school, we do it (SupTJ, interviewed on 26 January 2018).

The conclusion is that the University of Zambia and schools do not jointly review the teaching practice. Teacher educators TEC, TED, TEF and TEG clearly stated that there was no formal collaboration between the University of Zambia and schools. Some student teachers (10 out of 24) held a similar view on collaboration. It must be noted that in Chapter 3, teaching practice was construed as an interactive activity in which participants performed different tasks in pursuit of a common goal. However, this study has revealed that teaching practice was not as interactive as it was expected to be. The individual initiatives aimed at reviewing teaching practice may not yield the much-desired results for the implementation of teaching practice.

5.4.5.5 Effectiveness of the teaching practice programme

The last sub-theme was the effectiveness of the teaching practice programme. This was one of the most critical sub-themes of the study as it provided insightful data that directly addressed the main research question. As illustrated in subsection 3.4.1, teaching practice is an interactive activity in which different groups work together towards a common goal. Therefore, it was critically important to ascertain the outcome of the teaching practice implemented by the University of Zambia from the

perspectives of the participants. The outcome is one of the seven interacting elements of an activity system (Mudavanhu, 2016:211). According to Keengwe and Kang (2013:87), the outcome is the general purpose of an activity system, and may consist of new knowledge and skills (Aalst & Hill, 2006:27). As argued in the theoretical framework of this study (3.5.7), the overall intention of teaching practice is to produce a teacher who will be able to teach in the most effective and efficient way. The realisation of this intention or goal, however, may depend on how the teaching practice programme is organised and implemented.

Most of the teacher educators (TEA, TEB, TEC, TED & TEG) (5 out of 8) viewed teaching practice implemented by the University of Zambia as ineffective. They attributed this to the short period allocated to it. One teacher educator expressed this view as follows:

To be frank, because of the time factor I can't say it is very effective (TEA, interviewed on 28 February 2018).

All the supervising teachers indicated that the teaching practice programme implemented by the University of Zambia was too short and that there was no coordination between the two institutions. The majority of the supervising teachers (SupTB, SupTD, SupTF, SupTG, SupTH, SupTI & SupTJ) (7 out of 10) had a similar view. Here is what some participants said:

It is not effective in that the period is too short (SupTB, interviewed on 9 January 2018).

... there is no coordination between the schools and the University of Zambia (SupTD, interviewed on 15 January 2018).

Findings extracted from the student teachers' focus group discussions supported the view that teaching practice implemented by the University of Zambia in schools was ineffective. They explained that there was not much time for teaching practice in the third term because schools were engaged in the preparation and subsequent supervision of examinations. This reason was articulated by 20 of 24 student teachers (FG1: all of them; FG2: all of them except StuTC; FG3: all of them; and FG4: all except StuTA, StuTB and StuTE). One student teacher commented that:

... not much learning and teaching goes on in this (third) term because focus is on the examinations (FG2-StuTD, interviewed on 23 April 2018).

The participants explained that the greatest flaw in the implementation of teaching practice was that time allocated to it is too short. The duration of the teaching practice is drastically reduced by the final examinations that are held about a month into the third term of the school calendar. This finding is in line with the study of Sulistiyo et al. (2017:727) on the implementation of teaching practice to improve an English teacher education programme in Indonesia. They identified the duration and scheduling of teaching practice as major weaknesses in the implementation of teaching practice.

Now that findings on the participants' views on the supervision and evaluation of teaching practice have been dealt with, the next section focuses on the participants' interpretation of the role of supervising teachers in teaching practice.

5.5 FINDINGS FOR THE FOURTH RESEARCH QUESTION

The researcher also investigated the role of supervising teachers in teaching practice implemented by the University of Zambia from the perspectives of teacher educators and supervising teachers. Details are presented and discussed in the next section.

5.5.1 Participants' interpretation of the role of supervising teachers in teaching practice

The overriding theme that emerged was conceptualising the role of supervising teachers in teaching practice. From this theme, three sub-themes were identified, namely monitoring, guiding and evaluating student teachers, providing an enabling and supportive environment to student teachers, and instilling professional work practices in student teachers. Details of these sub-themes are presented below.

5.5.1.1 Monitoring, guiding and evaluating student teachers

The first sub-theme is monitoring, guiding and evaluating student teachers. All the teacher educators (except TEB and TEF) and supervising teachers SupTB, SupTE, SupTH and SupTI identified observing (monitoring) student teachers' lessons as a role played by the latter. In addition, teacher educators said that supervising teachers

were expected to evaluate student teachers as well. This view was expressed as follows:

They (supervising teachers) ensure that a student is punctual, prepares a lesson plan and is in class... Also from time to time they observe the student and make a report (TEA, interviewed on 28 February 2018).

To monitor whatever the student teachers are doing and guide them accordingly (SupTB, interviewed on 9 January 2018).

Furthermore, teacher educators (TEB, TED, TEG & TEH) and supervising teachers (SupTA, SupTB, SupTD & SupTG) identified guiding student teachers as what the latter were expected to do. The findings revealed that supervising teachers provided guidance to student teachers in areas such as class management. This view was supported by the majority of the supervising teachers (SupTA, SupTB, SupTD, SupTG, SupTF, SupTH & SupTJ) (7 out of 10). Below are two statements on guiding student teachers extracted from the supervising teachers' interview:

My role is to guide the teacher who is on teaching experience on how best they can deliver their lesson (SupTG, 8 January 2018).

Management would want us to ensure that by the time the students finish their teaching practice, they have gained a lot of experience such as how to manage a class (SupTC, interviewed on 12 January 2018).

This study's finding is consistent with Gujjar et al. (2011:305), and Zulu's (2015:53) findings that described the supervising teachers' role as that of monitoring, guiding and providing advice to student teachers. Further, the study's findings are consistent with what Lind (2004:29) and Clarke et al. (2014:176) established in their studies when they contended that 'gate keeping' of the profession was one of the roles that supervising teachers played in teaching practice. The 'gate keeping' role was aimed at regulating entry into the profession through evaluation of student teachers' work.

The above findings on guiding student teachers suggest that the supervising teacher's presence in class is needed so that a student teacher is guided effectively. What this means is that a supervising teacher must observe a student teacher teaching in class to provide appropriate guidance. This argument is in line with the

view expressed by Gujjar et al. (2011:305) that the role of a supervising teacher is to be an interpreter of feedback and an adviser.

This study's findings are also consistent with Zulu's (2015:53) study, which noted that guiding student teachers on how to manage a class is also a supervising teacher's role. To manage a class effectively is important because it enhances pupils' learning. The importance of class management is also underscored by the fact that it is one of the areas (see appendix J) that teacher educators focus on when evaluating student teachers.

5.5.1.2 Providing an enabling and supportive environment to student teachers

From the perspective of some supervising teachers (SupTB, SupTD, SupTF & SupTH), providing a conducive and supportive environment to student teachers was another role they were expected to play. One supervising teacher commented that:

When student teachers come, we give them mostly learning materials and other things they need. We also make the environment conducive for them to practise (SupTF, interviewed on 9 January 2018).

Although supervising teachers were expected to play an important role in teaching practice, some teacher educators expressed displeasure at the way some of them fulfilled this role. They observed that some of them did not supervise student teachers effectively in that they went on 'holiday' as soon as student teachers started their teaching practice. One teacher educator reported that:

Apart from observing, they (supervising teachers) do not do much. In fact, for them, it is a holiday when student teachers come (TEF, interviewed on 10 March 2018).

This finding is in line with Wasley's (2002:30) findings which reported that supervising teachers were generally not ready to undertake the duty of supervising teaching practice. Hamman and Romano (2009:2) add that this challenge is aggravated by the unclear "definitions and expectations related to support, supervision ...". Their absence from supervision could affect the implementation of teaching practice.

5.5.1.3 Instilling professional work practices in student teachers

The last sub-theme was instilling professional work practices in student teachers. According to teacher educators, professional work practices included being punctual (TEA & TEB), being present at work (TEA & TEC), creating a cordial working relationship with school staff (TEB & TED) and wearing decent attire (TED). This view was captured from the interviews as follows:

...they mentor the students in terms of what is expected of them, their dress code and how to interact with other teachers (TED, interviewed on 7 March 2018).

Based on what has been presented, it can be acknowledged that the supervising teachers' role is critical to the implementation of teaching practice. However, findings appear to indicate that there is a lack of clarity and consensus on the role that supervising teachers should play in teaching practice. For example, while teacher educators were of the view that supervising teachers should be evaluating student teachers, the latter did not even mention it. Second, while supervising teachers identified providing a favourable environment for student teachers to practise, none of the teacher educators did so. A clear and common understanding of the supervising teacher's role could enhance uniformity in the supervision and evaluation of student teachers.

The finding that there was a lack of clarity and consensus in the supervising teachers' role among teacher educators and supervising teachers is supported by earlier findings by Jeanne (2009:89) and Zhang et al. (2015:147). These studies acknowledged that it had been widely documented that there was a lack of clarity in the roles that teacher educators and supervising teachers were expected to play in the teaching practice programme. The studies concluded that the lack of clarity resulted in poor preparation and implementation of teaching practice in secondary schools. These findings, therefore, indicate that there is a need for clarity and consensus about the supervising teacher's role to enhance implementation of teaching practice.

A lack of clarity about the supervising teacher's role in teaching practice is seen in the omission of two important roles articulated by Zulu (2015:53). One role is that

supervising teachers attend to the immediate needs of the student teachers as soon as they report for teaching practice. In this study, the supervising teachers did not specifically mention this role. Surprisingly, earlier in the interview, supervising teachers were able to articulate this role when they were asked to explain the forms of orientation they gave to student teachers. Findings in this study seem to suggest that supervising teachers did not consider attending to the immediate needs of student teachers as their role. This is probably why they did not emphatically state it as their role. As documented in the literature, it is the supervising teachers who attend to the immediate needs of the student teachers.

The other role that the supervising teachers did not mention but that is also widely acknowledged in the literature is that they (the supervising teachers) are a link between the student teachers and teacher educators. This link is very important because it helps in the development of student teachers' professional skills and attitude and provides information on their performance (Zulu, 2015:53). In this study, it has been established that this link hardly exists. For example, some supervising teachers claimed that they never had any opportunity to meet the teacher educators nor was there any communication between them. A 'broken' link of this nature can adversely affect the implementation of teaching practice especially when a supervising teacher is expected to write a report on a student teacher's performance.

Earlier in this chapter under subsection 5.4.5.3, it was reported that none of the supervising teachers had ever been trained in the supervision of teaching practice. It is possible that the lack of training and advice from teacher educators causes supervising teachers to feel uncomfortable and not confident enough to supervise student teachers. The lack of training could also be the cause of supervising teachers' absenteeism from teaching practice. These findings are consistent with Lind's (2004:27) findings that established that supervising teachers failed to supervise teaching practice if they were not trained.

Zulu's (2015:53) findings revealed that the supervising teachers' role included providing a report on the performance of student teachers to the teacher educators. Similar findings were noted in a study conducted by Scott (2013:S151) in Namibia, which indicated that both teacher educators and supervising teachers observed and evaluated student teachers on prescribed forms provided by the faculty. Zulu

(2015:53) and Scott's (2013:S151) findings seem to contradict this study's findings because while teacher educators mentioned that supervising teachers were expected to evaluate student teachers, none of the supervising teachers mentioned it.

Following the supervising teachers' 'silence' on their participation in evaluating student teachers, the researcher sought clarification from teacher educators on this matter during member checking. The findings revealed that supervising teachers were not involved in evaluating student teachers unless a teacher educator failed to go to a school to observe a student teacher's lesson. This probably explains why supervising teachers did not state explicitly that they participated in evaluating student teachers' lessons. Consequently, under normal circumstances, supervising teachers do not participate in evaluating student teachers. Engaging supervising teachers in student teachers' evaluation only when there is a 'crisis' could discourage supervising teachers and subsequently affect the effective implementation of teaching practice.

The foregoing section has dealt with the participants' conceptualisation of the role of supervising teachers in teaching practice from the perspectives of teacher educators and supervising teachers. The next section presents and discusses findings on the challenges of implementing teaching practice by the University of Zambia.

5.6 FINDINGS OF THE FIFTH RESEARCH QUESTION

The fifth research question was: **What challenges does the University of Zambia face in conducting the teaching practice programme?** In this section, participants' views on the challenges of implementing teaching practice by the University of Zambia are presented and discussed.

5.6.1 Participants' views on the challenges of teaching practice

Participants were asked to discuss the challenges that the University of Zambia faced in implementing teaching practice in schools. Meyer and Lees (2013:662) and Avis (2009:158) argue that the activity theory is a useful tool to identify challenges that an institution faces. Due to the 'interventionist nature' of the activity theory (Yamagata-Lynch & Haudenschild, 2009:509) it is ideal to address challenges faced with the implementation of teaching practice. As earlier explained in 3.3.2.4, Roth and Tobin

(2002:108) emphasise that the activity theory can be used to identify the challenges that affect the implementation of teaching practice to ameliorate the theory-practice divide.

The overriding theme that emerged was that the implementation of teaching practice was beset with many challenges. From the overriding theme, five sub-themes were identified. These were that there was limited time for lectures and peer teaching, inadequate funds for teaching and learning materials, lack of coordination and collaboration among staff, the short period for teaching practice and student teachers' lack of commitment to teaching practice. Details of these sub-themes are presented below.

5.6.1.1 Limited time for lectures and peer teaching

The first sub-theme was limited time for lectures and peer teaching. Out of eight teacher educators, three of them (TEA, TEC & TEH) reported that the lecture hours for the teaching methods courses had been reduced. One teacher educator (TEA) attributed this to high student enrolments against limited teaching and learning space. One teacher educator commented:

I talked of the time factor, timetabling, and reduced contact hours from 4 to 2 because of limited infrastructure (TEA, interviewed on 28 February 2018).

The majority of teacher educators (TEA, TEB, TED, TEG & TEH) and all of the focus groups identified little time for peer teaching as a challenge. In some instances, a student teacher did peer teaching practice only once. Some participants expressed this view as follows:

We have one-hour sessions of peer teaching (per week) (TEB, interviewed on 16 March 2018).

The other challenge is that we were being asked to teach for ten minutes during the training... (FG4-StuTE, interviewed on 4 May 2018).

The challenge we face at UNZA is that peer teaching is done only once... (FG2-StuTD, interviewed on 23 April 2018).

The findings also revealed that the University of Zambia did not have a demonstration school. The lack of a demonstration school denied student teachers the opportunity to observe experienced teachers' lesson demonstration. Teacher educator TEH added that student teachers did not produce teaching aids that could be used during peer teaching and teaching practice due to lack of training facilities. This probably explains why teacher educator TEH described teaching methodology for student teachers at the University of Zambia as 'too theoretical'.

The findings revealed that student teachers had too little time for peer teaching. These findings are consistent with Chunmei and Chuanjun's (2015:235) study which showed that student teachers were not being given enough time for peer teaching. In this study, one student teacher FG4-StuTB complained that he was given 15 minutes to do peer teaching. The findings disclose that student teachers need more time to practise what they have learned.

5.6.1.2 Inadequate funds for teaching and learning materials

The second sub-theme was that there were inadequate funds for teaching and learning. This applied to both the University of Zambia and schools. Two teacher educators (TEC & TEH) explained that the institution faced a challenge of inadequate teaching and learning materials. Student teachers in focus groups 1, 3 and 4 stated that they had experienced challenges to find suitable materials for peer teaching and teaching practice at the University of Zambia and in schools respectively. Here is part of what was said by the participants:

Another challenge is the teaching-learning materials. ... The finances are a constraint on our part (TEC, Interviewed on 1 March 2018).

Resources are a challenge. ... I would suggest that UNZA give students text books that are used in secondary schools for practice during peer teaching (FG4-StuTE, interviewed on 4 May 2018).

The other challenge I faced was lack of teaching aids. I was told to provide for myself as the school did not have enough (FG3-StuTB, interviewed on 26 April 2018).

5.6.1.3 Lack of coordination and collaboration among staff

Another sub-theme that emerged was that there was lack of coordination and collaboration between staff involved in teacher training. Teacher educators handling teaching methods indicated that they hardly ever met with teacher educators handling subject content despite working for the same university. One teacher educator expressed this view as follows:

In as much as we work for the same university, we hardly ever meet our colleagues (from other faculties) to talk about how we are going to train teachers (TEC, interviewed on 1 March 2018).

The 'artificial' barrier that existed between teacher educators exemplified a lack of coordination and collaboration. It is critically important that teacher educators meet to enhance the training of students. In the process, this may help student teachers to synchronise content with teaching methods more easily. Ultimately, this may not only lessen criticism about student teachers' failure to employ the right teaching methods but will also enhance the implementation of teaching practice.

Lack of coordination and collaboration was also evident in the manner that teaching practice was organised by the University of Zambia. All the teacher educators, supervising teachers including some student teachers (10 of 24) highlighted the lack of coordination and collaboration between the University of Zambia and schools. The following extracts support this view:

To the best of my knowledge, we do not collaborate (TED, interviewed on 7 March 2018).

There is no collaboration between the school and the University (SupTD, interviewed on 12 January 2018).

The findings of this study confirmed that there was no collaboration between the University of Zambia and schools on matters of teaching practice. The lack of collaboration was evident in the failure by the University of Zambia to make prior arrangements with the schools so that student teachers did not face problems in finding schools for teaching practice. These findings are consistent with studies by Nguyen (2015:169), Robinson (2016:19), Celen and Akcan (2017:251) and Mtika

(2008:218) which established that lack of collaboration between schools and universities was a great challenge to the implementation of teaching practice. Robinson (2016:19) and Nguyen (2015:169) explained that there was lack of collaboration between schools and universities because they did not communicate about the goals and arrangements for teaching practice.

It must be emphasised that collaboration between universities and schools is extremely important when implementing teaching practice. This is because there are many benefits for collaborating institutions. Sharon and Esther (2012:41) argue that through collaboration, change can be facilitated while at the same time creating conditions that help the personal transformation of the participants. This finding suggests that participants need to collaborate in teaching to gain maximum benefits.

5.6.1.4 The period for teaching practice is short

Another sub-theme was that the period for teaching practice is short (see also subsection 5.4.4.1). This was acknowledged by all the teacher educators (except TEC), the majority of the supervising teachers (except SupTC & SupTE) and all of the participants of the focus groups (except 2 participants in FG4). Some participants expressed this view as follows:

The challenge has been time. Six weeks is not enough to do teaching practice
(STA, interviewed on 12 January 2018).

The number one challenge is the period for us to do teaching practice. It was too short ... (FG1-StuTB, interviewed on 18 April 2018).

A further probe into the duration of teaching practice revealed reasons why the University of Zambia was implementing teaching practice for a shorter time. Findings showed that a longer period was not possible in the third term because schools conducted final examinations during that time. Furthermore, a longer period would disrupt academic programmes in other faculties at the University of Zambia as the School of Education was linked to the main academic calendar. The same short period for teaching practice made it impossible for a teacher educator to observe a student teacher's lesson more than once. This situation was further aggravated by

the late release of funds for teaching practice supervision. This view was articulated by one teacher educator as follows:

The other challenge is funding. Usually, the money is not released early for people (teacher educators) to go and observe students (TED, interviewed on 7 March 2018).

The short time allocated to teaching practice is not in line with what happens in other countries such as the USA and China where more time is allocated, as mentioned in Chapter 2 subsection 2.5.3. The findings seem to suggest that the short period for teaching practice does not serve the interests of the participants, particularly those of the student teachers. One consequence of this was that teacher educators had little time to interact with student teachers after lesson observation. It must be highlighted that great differences exist in the nature, structure and the ways in which different teacher training institutions organise their teaching practice (Goodnough et al., 2008:285). This has also been acknowledged by Ping and Chunxia (2006:16) who state that differences exist in length of time, the number of units, subjects taught, and arrangements in student teaching. Probably what matters is how the time allocated to teaching practice is utilised.

The tendency of teacher educators to observe student teachers on teaching practice only once is not good at all. In addition, a final grade based on one lesson observation does not really reflect the true performance of a student teacher. It would be better for a student teacher to be observed more than once. At the end of each lesson observation, a teacher educator should discuss with the student teacher the strengths and weaknesses observed in the lesson. This may help the student teacher to learn from the previous mistakes and then progressively to improve their teaching skills.

5.6.1.5 Student teachers' lack of commitment towards teaching practice

Another sub-theme was that student teachers lacked commitment to teaching practice. According to the findings, three supervising teachers (SupTA, SupTG & SupTH) expressed their displeasure at the lack of commitment from student teachers on teaching practice. According to supervising teachers SupTE, SupTF and SupTG,

this lack of commitment among student teachers was expressed in their behaviour and in the way they dressed. One supervising teacher had this to say:

The students are not well prepared in terms of conduct and behaviour (SupTE, interviewed on 10 January 2018).

Lack of commitment of student teachers could imply that they have little or no interest in what they are doing. According to one supervising teacher (SupTG), he would like to train a teacher who is good-hearted and concerned about the learning of pupils. This view is similar to a finding in a study conducted by Clarke et al. (2014:176), that supervising teachers can ensure that only student teachers with exemplary behaviour and a love for the profession are recommended to enter the teaching profession.

In this study, there appears to be little collaboration between teacher educators and supervising teachers. For this reason, supervising teachers were not able to act effectively as a link between student teachers and teacher educators. This study's findings are in line with Zeichner's (1992) findings which established the absence of this link between teacher educators and supervising teachers. According to Zulu (2015:53), this link becomes useful when it comes to the development of student teachers' professional skills and attitude as well as providing information on their performance.

The next section examines the participants' views on the measures that can be taken to improve the implementation of teaching practice.

5.7 FINDINGS FOR THE SIXTH RESEARCH QUESTION

The last research question was: **What improvements can be made to the conduct of teaching practice programme in secondary schools in Zambia?** In the next section, responses to the question are presented and discussed.

5.7.1 Participants' suggestions to improve the implementation of teaching practice by the University of Zambia

The overriding theme that emerged was measures to improve the implementation of teaching practice. Three sub-themes were identified as follows: more time should be allocated to teaching methods, peer teaching and teaching practice; student teachers

should be provided with adequate teaching materials; and the School of Education should be separated from the other faculties. Details of the sub-themes are presented and discussed below.

5.7.1.1 More time should be allocated to teaching methods, peer teaching and teaching practice

One sub-theme was that more time should be allocated to teaching methods, peer teaching and teaching practice. It appears these three areas are not allocated enough time for effective training. All the teacher educators and some supervising teachers (SupTB, SupTD, SupTH & SupTG) recommended the allocation of more time to teaching methods. One supervising teacher observed that:

... they should spend more time on teaching methods (SupTB, interviewed on 9 January 2018).

Both teacher educators and student teachers bemoaned the inadequate time allocated to peer teaching. Some participants in FG1 (StuTA, StuTC & StuTE) and FG2 (StuTF) suggested that the time dedicated to peer teaching should be increased. One student teacher said:

I think the whole of third year should be for peer teaching (FG1-StuTC, interviewed on 18 April 2018).

In addition, both student teachers and supervising teachers recommended that the former should be attached to schools to observe experienced teachers teaching before going for teaching practice. Supervising teachers SupTD, SupTG and SupTJ said this would be possible once the University of Zambia established a link with schools. These views were expressed as follows:

My suggestion is for the University of Zambia to organise us to go to nearby schools to observe in-service teachers. This will help us because just going there in the third year to face a class is a challenge (FG1-StuTF, interviewed on 18 April 2018).

First and foremost, there should be a link between the university and the schools (SupTD, interviewed on 15 January 2018).

Findings seem to suggest that more time is needed for teaching methods as this was an area of concern mentioned by all the teacher educators and supervising teachers (SupTB, SupTD, SupTH & SupTG). Similarly, findings seem to suggest that student teachers need more time for peer teaching because student teachers themselves identified this as an area of concern. The foregoing findings have indicated a strong need for the establishment of a demonstration school. This could help student teachers overcome the anxiety that seemed to grip them (as expressed indirectly by FG1-StuTF) when they reported for teaching practice.

Six out of eight teacher educators (TEA, TEB, TEC, TED, TEF & TEH) and seven out of ten supervising teachers (SupTC, SupTD, SupTE, SupTG, SupTH, SupTI & SupTJ) wanted the duration of teaching practice to be extended to at least one full term (i.e. approximately 13 weeks). Some student teachers (FG1-StuTB, FG2-StuTF & StuTB) held a similar view while others (FG1-ST2, FG2-ST6 & ST2) suggested that the period for teaching practice should be twice as long. This would imply doing it for two full terms (FG2-STA, FG4-STB, STE & STF). These views were expressed as follows:

As long as they can do it the whole school term, I am comfortable with that (TEC, interviewed on 1 March 2018).

They should be here for the whole term (SupTJ, interviewed, 26 January 2018).

We should be given a whole term for teaching practice (FG2-StuTF, interviewed on 23 April 2018).

Half of the teacher educators (TEA, TEE, TEG & TEH) proposed that teaching practice should be implemented in the second term of the school calendar. Supervising teachers SupTA and SupTC also proposed that teaching practice could be conducted in either the first or the second term. Some student teachers (FG1-StuTA, StuTC & StuTD; FG2-StuTA, StuTB & StuTE; FG4-StuTB, StuTE & StuTF) held the same opinion.

We can run courses in such a way that when our students are in third year, term 2, there are no courses to be done but they will just go for teaching experience for a full term (TEH, interviewed on 18 January 2018).

Term one is the best to do teaching practice... (SupTC, interviewed on 12 January 2018).

I think teaching practice should not be done in term 3 but in term 1 (FG2-StuTD, interviewed on 23 April 2018).

All the participants want teaching practice to take place in either the first or the second term. They were all against using the third term for teaching practice as it gave student teachers little time to practise due to the final examinations that were held during the same period. The concern about timing was genuine and needs to be attended to so that the University of Zambia can have more time for the implementation of teaching practice.

These findings suggest that the period for teaching practice is inadequate. Therefore all of the participants wanted the period to be increased to at least one full term. As indicated in the literature, should the period for teaching practice be increased, it will comply with the recommendation of the Zambia Education Curriculum Framework (ZECF) of 2012, which states that teaching practice should be done for at least one full school term (MoESVTEE, 2012:49).

5.7.1.2 Student teachers should be provided with adequate teaching materials

Another sub-theme was that student teachers should be provided with adequate teaching materials. The teacher educators TEB and TED and supervising teachers SupTF and SupTJ recommended that more financial resources should be allocated to purchase teaching materials. Student teachers from focus group 1 (StuTC, StuTE & StuTF) expressed the same view:

First and foremost, they should give the student teachers the tools that they need (SupTF, interviewed on 9 January 2018).

We should be given materials like text books (FG1-StuTF, interviewed on 18 April 2018).

5.7.1.3 The School of Education should be separated from other Schools

The last sub-theme, which appeared to be radical but useful to the study, was that the School of Education should be separated from other schools of the University of

Zambia. The participants (TEA, TEB, TEF, TEH & FG1-StuTD) explained that this would help the School of Education to implement teaching practice successfully. The recommendation was expressed as follows:

We are linked to the university timetable ... So, the suggestion is that we become a college and have our own timetable (TEB, interviewed on 16 March 2018).

It will be better if the school of education calendar is detached from other schools ... (FG1-StuTD, interviewed on 18 April 2018).

The recommendation to 'delink' the School of Education from other faculties would entail that the School of Education would have its own academic calendar and staff to teach both content and teaching methods (TEB, TEE, TEG & TEH), and to address the deficiencies that have been noted in the content of some subjects (TEB & TED). These views were captured from the interviews as follows:

I would rather have the people teaching content, handle methodology as well (TEE, interviewed on 16 March 2018).

I think as a school we need to come up with our own courses. The courses are coming from other faculties and as such they are not meant for students who are going to be teachers (TED, interviewed on 7 March 2018).

Furthermore, the findings demonstrated that separating the School of Education from other schools would also result in more time for teaching methods, peer teaching, teaching practice and student supervision by teacher educators. This is because the School of Education would have its own academic calendar that could be adjusted to suit the schools' calendar. The foregoing statement is supported by the following quotations:

One of the challenges I have realised is that we spend very little time on teaching methods (TEH, interviewed on 18 July 2018).

Before student teachers go for teaching practice, they will have done adequate peer and macro teaching locally (TEE, interviewed on 16 March 2018).

The University of Zambia should release students for a longer period... They (teacher educators) should come to check and see how we are doing (SupTG, interviewed on 8 January 2018).

To enhance training, teacher educators (TEC, TED & TEH) suggested that a demonstration school could be established where experienced and supervising teachers could be invited to demonstrate how to teach a lesson. This could enhance collaboration between the University of Zambia and the schools.

The university should have a secondary school where lesson demonstrations are actually carried out (TED, interviewed on 7 March 2018).

The participants had a clear idea about how the University of Zambia could improve the implementation of teaching practice in schools. Most of the recommendations that the participants made were concerned with increasing time for important activities such as teaching methods and teaching practice. Above all, the participants strongly argued that the proposed recommendations would work better if the School of Education were separated from other faculties. This proposal is enhanced with more details later in Chapter 6. However, while its benefits appear to be appealing, care must be taken not to overlook what has been built over time. As argued earlier in Chapter 3 subsection 3.2.3, activity systems take shape and become transformed over a long period of time (historicity) (Engeström, 2001:136; Mudavanhu, 2014:57). Thus, before an innovation such as this is implemented, its strengths and weaknesses need to be considered in order to forestall any possible disturbance to the activity systems.

Having presented and discussed the findings based on the semi-structured interviews and focus group discussions, the next section examines findings from document analysis.

5.8 DOCUMENT ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

This section presents and analyses findings emanating from the document analysis of 24 lesson evaluation forms (hereafter referred to as evaluation form or forms). The forms were used by the teacher educators to assess student teachers' lessons during teaching practice. As earlier indicated (3.3.2.1), the activity theory provides for the interaction of actors, artefacts and situation (Spillane et al., 2001:23). For example, through the lens of the activity theory, Gunn et al. (2016) used interviews and document analysis to collect data from student teachers and scholars (3.3.2.1). Content analysis was used to establish themes based on the teacher educators' final

comments on the evaluation forms. In short, the extracts provided a basis for identifying themes.

Initial analysis of the findings revealed that a few evaluation forms had very brief final comments such as 'The lesson was good' (TEF8). An evaluation form such as this one and a few others did not yield enough data for a detailed analysis and triangulation with other data sets. However, as will be demonstrated later, most of the evaluation forms had useful data for a meaningful analysis and discussion that helped to address the main research question. In terms of presentation, responses are discussed according to the order of questions for document analysis. Findings are supported by words or sentences extracted from the evaluation forms.

5.8.1 Awarding a final grade to student teachers

The first question sought to establish the final grades that teacher educators awarded to student teachers after observing their lessons. An analysis of the evaluation forms resulted in the identification of two ways used to award a final grade. Some evaluation forms awarded a 'letter' grade such as 'B' while others had a 'statement' such as 'a good lesson'. Since these grades or statements were based on the lessons observed, the researcher labelled them conveniently as letter-graded and statement-graded lessons respectively. Details of these two ways are presented below.

5.8.1.1 Letter-graded lessons

The findings revealed that half (12) of the evaluation forms (TEF 1, 2, 8, 9, 10, 11, 16, 19, 20, 23 & 24) had a letter grade. The letter grades ranged from 'A⁺' (highest pass grade) to 'D' (lowest and fail grade). The final teacher educators' grades ranged from B to A⁺, so all 12 student teachers with a letter grade passed teaching practice. The final letter grades for student teachers are shown in Table 5.6 below.

Table 5.5: Student teachers' lesson observation grades

Grade	Lesson evaluation form number	Number of student teachers
A ⁺	1	1
A	2, 8, 11, 16, 19	5
B ⁺	10, 20, 22, 23	4
B	9, 24	2
C	0	0
D	0	0
Total	12	12

Source: Field data, 2018.

5.8.1.2 Statement-graded lessons

The other twelve evaluation forms were statement-graded lessons. The absence of a letter grade prompted the researcher to seek clarification from the coordinator for School Teaching Practice. The coordinator explained that the final result on the candidate's result transcript was denoted either by the letter 'S' for satisfactory performance or the letter 'U' for unsatisfactory performance. For this reason, a statement-graded lesson was as good as a letter-graded lesson as none of them counted towards the final degree classification.

The final statement or comment was just as important as the letter grade if it was indicative of the performance of a student, either a pass or a fail. In this study, a positive comment such as 'it was a successful lesson' meant that a student teacher had passed teaching practice. The final comment 'it was a successful lesson' was found on four evaluation forms namely: TEF3, 14, 15 and 17 while the comment 'very good' or 'good lesson' was recorded on the following evaluation forms: 4, 5, 12, 13 and 18. The rest of the evaluation forms TEF 6, 7 and 21 also had positive comments or a phrase such as the lesson was 'well delivered'.

The findings on the statement-graded lessons suggest that all the student teachers passed their teaching practice. In addition, using two different ways of grading suggest that there is no standardisation in terms of how the final grade should be indicated on the evaluation form.

5.8.2 Teacher educators' final comments on student teachers' performance

The researcher also examined the teacher educator's final comments pertaining to a student teacher's performance. The emerging theme was that the student teachers' performance was satisfactory. This was supported by two common descriptions of the performance that were identified, namely 'a very good lesson' and 'a good lesson'. Details of these comments are discussed below.

5.8.2.1 A very good lesson

The comment 'a very good lesson' or similar was written on two lesson evaluation forms (TEF 9 & 12). These forms had a more favourable description in terms of how the lesson was taught. They included comments on some aspects of a lesson such as how the lesson was introduced.

It was an excellent lesson which was delivered with high levels of confidence, know-how, creativity and professionalism (TEF9).

5.8.2.2 A good lesson

Findings revealed that the most common and favourable comment on the remaining ten forms was 'a good lesson'. The difference between the comment 'a very good lesson' and 'a good lesson' appeared to be marginal except that the former had more favourable comments. The following two extracts from the lesson evaluation form are used to illustrate and support the foregoing view:

The lesson was good (TEF8).

It was a very good lesson (TEF18).

The final comment on TEF8 was as brief as it is presented above. In terms of scores, the highest score of five was awarded on the student teacher's personality. This score encompassed two aspects, namely student teacher's appearance and the teacher-pupil relationship. The final comment on TEF18 was more detailed as it explained how the lesson was taught. In addition, the highest score of five was awarded on the achievement of lesson objectives including lesson development. However, when it came to the allocation of grades, TEF8 was given 'A' as the final grade, while TEF18, which had scores on what appeared to be more important

aspects of the lesson, had only the comment 'it was a good lesson' without a letter grade (see appendices R & S).

The findings suggest that the final comment on the student teacher's performance depended on the teacher educator's judgement. The total number of scores on the lesson evaluation form did not necessarily translate into a specific grade and final comment. This was also supported by the instructions that were written on the lesson evaluation form that 'The categories are not equally weighted and so the total does not necessarily translate to a grade' (see appendix J).

It appears all of the student teachers whose evaluation forms were selected for this study did well in teaching practice and subsequently passed it. This is evidenced by the favourable comments that teacher educators wrote on the lesson evaluation forms. However, the teacher educators had different areas of focus during lesson evaluation as is evident from the comments they made.

5.8.3 Teacher educators' areas of focus in lesson observation

Teacher educators' areas of focus were also examined through document analysis. The emerging theme was areas of focus during lesson observation of student teachers. The areas of focus with the frequency of occurrence are displayed in Table 5.7 below. The information about the areas of focus in lesson observation was important for triangulating with the data based on the semi-structured interviews with teacher educators. This was because one of the interview questions in subsection 5.4.4.2 for teacher educators was also aimed at establishing the main focus areas during lesson observation.

Table 5.6: Teacher educators' areas of focus in lesson observation

Area of focus	Lesson evaluation form (TEF) number	Frequency
Lesson plan	7, 14, 17, 19	04
Teaching methods	2, 3, 4, 7, 9, 11, 12, 16, 18, 21, 24	11
Introduction of lesson	1, 2, 4, 5, 6, 7, 10, 12, 13, 15, 16, 20, 21, 22	14
Knowledge of subject matter	2, 4, 6, 7, 9, 12, 13, 14, 17, 19, 20, 22	12
Use of teaching aids	1, 5, 7, 11, 15, 16, 17, 19, 22, 24	10
Pupil participation	1, 2, 9, 10, 13, 15, 16, 18, 19, 22, 23	11

Source: Field data, 2018.

The findings presented in Table 5.6 above have shown that the manner a lesson was introduced to the pupils was accorded the most attention during lesson observation. The second most frequently observed area was student teacher's knowledge of subject matter, followed by teaching methods including the extent to which pupils were participating in the lesson. A lesson plan was the area that teacher educators focused on least.

Having dealt with the teacher educators' areas of focus in lesson observation, the researcher further analysed the comments that teacher educators made on the evaluation forms. The aim was to establish whether the information on the evaluation forms was similar to the findings obtained from the semi-structured interviews with teacher educators. The emerging theme was that the student teachers at the University of Zambia were ready to do teaching practice in schools. Two sub-themes were identified, namely that student teachers had good knowledge of subject matter and that student teachers had good teaching skills. Details of the sub-themes are presented below.

5.8.3.1 Student teachers had good knowledge of subject matter

Half of the teacher educators' comments on the evaluation forms (TEF 2, 4, 6, 7, 9, 12, 14, 17, 19, 20 & 22) (12 of 24) indicated that student teachers had good knowledge of subject matter. One of the comments extracted read:

"The teacher exhibited very good knowledge of the subject matter"
(TEF22).

5.8.3.2 Student teachers had good teaching skills

In this study, teaching skills referred to the teaching methods and/or techniques used by student teachers in class. On eleven evaluation forms (TEF 2, 3, 4, 7, 9, 11, 12, 16, 18, 21 & 24) the teacher educators made comments pertaining to teaching methods. All of the teacher educators expressed satisfaction with student teachers' teaching skills with comments like:

"Group work and presentations made pupils participate actively in the lesson"
(TEF7).

All the teacher educators' comments on the readiness of student teachers to do teaching practice in terms of knowledge of subject matter and teaching skills were favourable. These findings suggest that student teachers were ready to undertake teaching practice in schools. In addition, though subjective, this suggests that the teaching practice conducted by the University of Zambia is effective. This is evidenced by the high grades given to student teachers, i.e. ranging from B to A⁺, and also the fact that the final comments made by the teacher educators on the evaluation forms were all favourable. Finally, the foregoing findings from document analysis are triangulated with the findings from the interviews held with teacher educators in the paragraphs that follow.

5.9 COMMENTS ON FINDINGS FROM DOCUMENT ANALYSIS AND INTERVIEWS

Following an analysis of the findings from the document analysis and interviews with teacher educators, three common areas were identified. These are the student teachers' final grades, areas of focus during lesson observation, and the final comments on the evaluation forms. Considering this, comments on the findings from the document analysis and interviews with teacher educators are based on these three areas.

5.9.1 Student teachers' final grades

As reported under subsection 5.5.1, all the student teachers who participated in the study passed teaching practice. However, as noted in the same subsection, some student teachers were not awarded a letter grade and their performance was simply described favourably. This suggests that the University of Zambia does not have a standard procedure on how the final grade should be awarded. Findings indicate that the grade for teaching practice was not used in classifying a degree.

5.9.2 Major areas of focus in lesson observation

The findings from the interviews on student teachers' knowledge of subject matter and teaching methods coincided with the findings obtained from the document analysis. Whereas the student teachers' knowledge of subject matter as a focus area was indicated by the majority of teacher educators (6 out of 8), a similar comment appeared on 12 evaluation forms, which represented half of the evaluation forms.

The findings from the interviews on the teaching methods also concurred with the findings from the document analysis in a similar way. In this study, six of the eight teacher educators identified teaching methods as a focus area and the same focus area appeared on 11 evaluation forms.

The interviews on this subject revealed that a small number of teacher educators paid attention to other focus areas. This appeared to be the general picture for the remaining focus areas. In addition, the findings suggest that the focus areas extracted from the interviews and document analysis tended to vary.

Findings from the interviews on other areas of focus, namely the manner of dressing, conclusion to a lesson, clarity of speech and time management were highlighted. However, the findings did not concur with those from the document analysis. This is because none of these focus areas were listed on the evaluation form. It appears as though the teacher educators did not consider them as important as knowledge of subject matter and teaching methods. The probable reason for not highlighting the focus areas, and particularly the conclusion to a lesson and time management, on the evaluation form could be explained by the earlier findings that some teacher educators observed lessons for as little as 15 minutes (refer to subsection 5.6.1.1). Therefore, it was probably difficult for the teacher educators concerned to comment on areas they had not observed.

In this study, the majority of the teacher educators considered student teachers' knowledge of subject matter and teaching methods as the most important areas of focus during lesson observation. This is supported by evidence from both interviews and document analysis. Some focus areas, namely the lesson plan, introduction to a lesson, use of teaching aids and pupil participation in class, were not identified by many teacher educators.

5.9.3 Teacher educators' final comments

Findings suggest that student teachers taught the lessons well. This view emanates from the evidence adduced from the document analysis where teacher educators described student teachers' performance as satisfactory. However, what was not clear to the researcher was how teacher educators determined the final comments or

grade when the findings from the semi-structured interviews revealed that it was common for teacher educators not to observe an entire lesson.

Findings from the document analysis seem to contradict what some teacher educators said about the performance of some student teachers. Teacher educators TEH and TEE expressed their dissatisfaction with the way some student teachers used teaching methods. The probable reason for this discrepancy could be that the reported incidents may not have been part of the evaluation forms that were examined. However, supervising teachers clearly indicated that student teachers had inadequate knowledge and skills in teaching methodology. The next section presents the final analysis on the main findings of the study.

5.10 FINAL ANALYSIS OF THE MAIN FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

The final analysis of the main findings of the study is presented under three major subsections. The first subsection focuses on the main question of the study: **How effective is teaching practice conducted by the University of Zambia for the preparation of teachers to teach in secondary schools in Zambia?** The second subsection focuses on the role of supervising teachers in teaching practice, and the third and final subsection of the analysis is on the challenges that the University of Zambia faces in implementing teaching practice in schools.

5.10.1 The final analysis of the main question

As indicated in Chapter 1, according to the Zambia Education Curriculum Framework (MoESVTEE, 2012:16), the main elements that impact on quality in teacher education are inputs, processes and outputs. Considering this framework, the researcher examined elements such as time, preparation of student teachers, the support given to student teachers and challenges that could have a bearing on the implementation of teaching practice.

The key finding of this study is that the teaching practice implemented by the University of Zambia in schools is ineffective. This view was held by the majority of the participants. The participants gave reasons why they believed teaching practice is ineffective. Details of these reasons are presented under three subheadings, namely

training of student teachers, implementing teaching practice and establishing the outcome of teaching practice.

5.10.1.1 Training of student teachers

The findings reveal that time allocated to train student teachers effectively at the University of Zambia was inadequate due to the limited learning space. Both teacher educators and student teachers confirmed that time for practising teaching methods and peer teaching was inadequate. This was evident in comments such as “lecture time had been drastically reduced from four to two hours ...” (TEA) and that student teachers were asked to do peer teaching “for ten minutes...” (FG4-StuTE). This probably accounted for the poor teaching skills exhibited by some student teachers during teaching practice as revealed by teacher educators TEE and TEH, all the supervising teachers and some student teachers (FG1-StuTA & FG3-StuTB). These findings are in line with a study conducted by Valerio et al. (2012:9) on music teacher preparation, in which they established that conditions such as preparation time did not facilitate teaching practice. Lack of preparation time may have impacted negatively on teaching practice implemented by the University of Zambia as well.

Learning about co-curricular activities and how to prepare teaching aids was also grossly affected by inadequate time. The absence of a demonstration school and lack of appropriate learning materials were other challenges that affected training negatively. The involvement of in-service teachers in lesson demonstration could also affect the quality of training student teachers in readiness for teaching practice.

Based on the foregoing, it can be concluded that the input of both teacher educators and student teachers into training was largely constrained by the limited time allocated to teaching methods courses and related activities. In addition, inadequate learning facilities and materials impacted on the quality of training of student teachers. For example, Mtika (2008:71) observed that teaching tools can affect the extent to which the subject and object relate to each other. According to Hardman (2008:68), tools mediate the interaction between an individual such as a student teacher and an object. In relation to the activity theory, a lack of learning materials could negatively affect the quality of both the student teachers and teaching practice itself. This is because the student teachers may not adequately acquire appropriate

pedagogical knowledge and skills in lesson delivery. In short, the way student teachers are prepared can affect the quality of both the student teachers and teaching practice itself.

5.10.1.2 Implementing teaching practice

The implementation of teaching practice in schools comprised many activities in which the teaching practice triad members were involved. The triad identified several weaknesses in the implementation of teaching practice of which the major ones are briefly described under bullet points below.

- *Short duration for teaching practice*

Participants expressed dissatisfaction with the short duration allocated to teaching practice. This finding suggests that participants felt that teaching practice in schools was too short for student teachers to acquire quality teaching skills.

- *Little attention is paid to lesson plans*

Both interviews and documentary evidence confirm that the lesson plan was the least important area of focus during lesson observations. Findings from the semi-structured interviews indicate that only one teacher educator (TEA) out of eight identified the lesson plan as a focus area. As mentioned earlier, a lesson plan is an important tool because it acts as a guide to teaching. Failure to pay attention to a lesson plan could greatly affect the implementation of teaching practice.

- *Teacher educators spent little time on lesson observations and feedback*

Teacher educators' inability to spend adequate time on lesson observations including feedback to student teachers was highlighted by both teacher educators and student teachers. One teacher educator (TEH) described lesson observation as a 'hit and run' affair because it was hurriedly done, while a student teacher (FG2-StuTB) indicated his/her lesson was observed for about 20 minutes. Similarly, the time for feedback to a student teacher on a lesson observed was inadequate. For feedback to contribute meaningfully to the learning of student teachers, it must be an interactive activity in which both teacher educators and student teachers play an active role (Bloxham & Campbell, 2010:291). However, the feedback by the teacher educators

and supervising teachers in this study seem to contradict Bloxham and Campbell's (2010:291) observation on what feedback should be, partly because teacher educators had hardly any meaningful dialogue with student teachers over the lessons observed. Properly arranged feedback can help student teachers understand how they have performed and where they need to improve in teaching.

- *Inadequate lesson observations*

Both teacher educators and student teachers confirmed that a student teacher's lesson was observed only once by a teacher educator. In addition, documentary evidence supported the view that a number of lessons were not observed in full, based on the brief comments that teacher educators made; sometimes in as few as four words. The question is: can one lesson's observation reflect a student teacher's ability to teach during teaching practice?

- *Lack of clarity and consensus on the role of a supervising teacher*

Findings reveal a lack of clarity and consensus on the role of supervising teachers in teaching practice. It can be concluded that teacher educators and supervising teachers do not have a common understanding of the latter's role in teaching practice. A common understanding of the role of supervising teachers could enhance and standardise the implementation of teaching practice in schools.

- *Lack of collaboration among staff*

In this study, teaching practice was conceived as a process as well as a joint activity in which the teaching practice triad members were expected to interact with each other. However, the findings reveal that teacher educators hardly found time to interact and collaborate with supervising teachers. The lack of collaboration was exemplified in a number of ways, such as some head teachers preventing student teachers from practising in their schools and the use of different lesson plan formats by student teachers during teaching practice. More importantly, the failure by the University of Zambia and schools to conduct a joint review of teaching practice confirmed the lack of collaboration. A study conducted by Mtika (2008:218) established that the absence of a collaborative partnership could result in little or no support from the activity systems of the school and university. The next subsection

analyses some aspects of the outcome of teaching practice implemented by the University of Zambia.

5.10.1.3 Establishing the outcome of teaching practice

The study established that teacher educators spend very little time on reviewing lessons they observe with individual student teachers. The apportioning of little time to the review of lessons contradicts Allen and Peach's (2007:26) view about teaching practice that it is used to ascertain competencies that student teachers have attained.

The findings show three important aspects pertaining to student teachers' lesson evaluation. Different lesson plan formats were administered while both the teacher educators and supervising teachers had different focus areas for assessment of a student teacher's lesson during teaching practice. The findings further suggest that there are no regulations on lesson plan format and focus areas for assessing student teachers' lessons. This may compromise standards. In addition, some comments made on the evaluation form appeared not to be helpful to student teachers as seen from the document analysis. The evidence pertaining to the adequacy of comments was strong enough to confirm that little time was reserved for lesson observation and feedback to student teachers on teaching practice.

Finally, the findings reveal that the teaching practice implemented by the University of Zambia in schools is not reviewed jointly by teacher educators and supervising teachers. However, some departments at the University of Zambia and some schools have been reviewing teaching practice on their own. A review of any educational programme is cardinal so that should problems be identified remedial measures can be taken. This view is consistent with Alhwiti's (2007:41) observation that the primary purpose of analysing an educational or training programme is to provide information for decisions about it. Therefore, a joint review could effectively address challenges that a programme such as teaching practice faces.

The foregoing presentation has attempted to re-confirm the findings that teaching practice implemented by the University of Zambia in schools is ineffective. The next subsection focuses on the final analysis of the role of supervising teachers in teaching practice.

5.10.2 The role of supervising teachers in teaching practice

The findings indicate that teacher educators and supervising teachers did not have a common understanding of the latter's role in teaching practice (see subsection 5.10.1.2). The role confusion is exacerbated by the fact that often schools and universities lack knowledge about the roles that each of them must play, while policies to support schools' involvement in the pre-service of teachers are not available (Southgate et al., 2013:20; Zeichner, 2012:379). A lack of clarity and consensus in the supervising teachers' role in teaching practice among teacher educators counters the activity theory which advocates for participants' understanding of their specific roles (Mtika, 2008:1; Burnard & Younker, 2008; Mudavanhu, 2016:211). For effective implementation it is important for all the participants to understand their particular role in teaching practice.

In this study the findings indicate that teacher educators did not give any training or advice to supervising teachers on how to supervise student teachers, probably because there was an apparent absence of a policy on professional training in teaching practice. The study's findings are consistent with the study by Clarke et al. (2014:164) that teacher educators' failure to understand the role of supervising teachers in teaching practice makes it difficult for them to determine the support to give the latter to enhance their work. This situation can worsen when the duo does not collaborate with each other and could affect the implementation of teaching practice.

This study reveals that some supervising teachers went on "holiday" as soon as student teachers reported for teaching practice. One probable reason could be that supervising teachers may not have been willing to be involved in teaching practice as they were not certain about the role they would play. Probably, supervising teachers lacked knowledge in teaching practice supervision because they did not receive any professional training or advice. In the next subsection, a final analysis of the challenges that the University of Zambia faces in implementing teaching practice in schools is presented.

5.10.3 Challenges of teaching practice conducted by the University of Zambia

The study has identified challenges that impact on the implementation of teaching practice, such as a notable reduction in training time in particular for lectures and peer teaching at the University of Zambia. This situation was attributed to several factors, which included shared learning facilities that ultimately restricted learning time. In addition, the University of Zambia has one of the shortest time durations for teaching practice compared to other universities.

Due to the short duration of time for teaching practice, student teachers were not able to effectively try out what they had learned. The lack of adequate time and inappropriate timing of teaching practice reported in this study could affect the quality of student teachers that graduate from the University of Zambia.

Another challenge was inadequate funding to the institution. This resulted in the institution's failure to procure adequate and relevant teaching and learning materials. This problem was also noted in schools. Craig et al. (1998:xi) note that factors such as "having books and materials and knowing how to use them" are important because they impact positively on the quality of teachers' performance and consequently on pupils' performance. Considering this challenge, the implementation of teaching practice could be affected.

The other challenge was a lack of collaboration between teacher educators and supervising teachers, which in the end impacted on the implementation of teaching practice. For example, some head teachers did not permit student teachers to do teaching practice in their schools. Previous studies by Smedley (2001) and Sharon and Esther (2012) have highlighted the benefits that accrue to participants and participating institutions because of collaboration. Sharon and Esther (2012:41) argue that collaboration can facilitate change and create conditions that can aid the personal transformation of the participants. Therefore, the lack of collaboration has a bearing on how teaching practice was being implemented by the University of Zambia.

5.11 FINAL REMARKS

This study has demonstrated that teaching practice is a process as well as an interactive activity as shown in Chapter 3 section 3.5 (Also refer to Figure 3.5). The third generation activity theory helped in understanding the interaction of the triad in teaching practice. It offers a useful “theoretical base to deepen our understanding of the field of professional experience that connects university and school...” (Bloomfield & Nguyen, 2015:30). The activity theory aims at examining progress ‘within practical social activities’ in which people nurture their skills and personality (Sannino et al., 2009:1). This was evident in the findings which revealed that teaching practice was an activity which helped student teachers enhance their knowledge and skills of teaching. It also enabled the researcher to establish challenges the University of Zambia faced in implementing teaching practice and subsequent outcome.

The findings have indicated that the success of teaching practice depends largely on how well each stage of the process is managed and the extent to which participants interact with each other. The study has noted that there were several problems that were encountered during training. These problems eventually impacted negatively on the implementation process. This probably explains why student teachers experienced challenges when translating theory into practice during teaching practice. This was confirmed by participants especially supervising teachers who noted with concern the inability of student teachers to use teaching methods appropriately.

Findings also confirm that the teaching practice process was not being managed effectively. For example, the University of Zambia did not make any prior arrangements with schools. This sometimes resulted in student teachers facing the problem of finding a school and when they finally found one, they had lost teaching practice time. In some schools, the process of orientating student teachers was also not well managed. It was discovered that some student teachers did not have the opportunity to observe a class teacher’s lesson. In addition, while on teaching practice, some student teachers did not benefit much from the teacher educators’ visits as they spent very little time with them. Both teacher educators and student teachers acknowledged that their discussions after lesson observation were brief. Furthermore, the findings reveal that teacher educators had hardly any time to meet

supervising teachers to discuss a student teacher's performance or even teaching practice in general. Failure by teacher educators to interact with supervising teachers demonstrates a lack of collaboration. This could also explain why it was not possible for teacher educators and supervising teachers to jointly review teaching practice after it had ended.

In addition, the study reveals that during evaluation both teacher educators and supervising teachers focused on different aspects of a lesson. Teacher educators and supervising teachers sometimes used different lesson formats and evaluation forms. These differences in approach to evaluation signified a lack of coordination and collaboration between teacher educators and supervising teachers.

Teaching practice should be considered a collaborative activity in which the teaching practice triad members play their various roles in pursuit of a common goal. The call by supervising teachers that they should collaborate with teacher educators in teaching methods to student teachers is critically important to the general organisation of teaching practice. This is because their collaboration will not only enhance student teachers' teaching skills but will also contribute positively to the implementation of teaching practice. The main conclusion of this study, that teaching practice implemented by the University of Zambia in schools is ineffective, is supported by the above findings.

5.12 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

This chapter has presented, analysed and discussed the findings of the study. The chapter has used relevant examples of verbatim responses from the participants' semi-structured interviews and focus group discussions to address the research questions.

Findings indicate that all the participants understood what teaching practice entailed. The main finding of the study is that teaching practice implemented by the University of Zambia in schools is ineffective. This has been attributed to several challenges such as lack of collaboration and the short period of time for teaching practice. However, drawing on the theoretical framework of the activity theory, contradictions (herein referred to as challenges) once identified can unlock the potential for change

in the way an activity is conducted (Murphy & Rodriguez-Manzanares, 2007:122; Avis, 2009:160).

The findings revealed that although student teachers had adequate knowledge of subject content, they did not have enough knowledge and skills in teaching methodology. Findings also indicate that supervising teachers were interested in undertaking training in student teacher supervision to enhance their performance. More importantly, participants made suggestions on how the University of Zambia could improve the implementation of teaching practice in schools. One of the key suggestions was that the School of Education should be separated from other faculties within the University of Zambia. This will allow the School of Education to implement teaching practice over a longer period. Finally, the findings indicate the participants' readiness to change the way the University of Zambia implements teaching practice in schools.

The next chapter, which marks the end of this thesis, provides a summary of the research findings, conclusion and recommendations of the study.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The foregoing chapter presented and discussed the findings of the study on the efficacy of teaching practice implemented by the University of Zambia in schools. The findings were organised and presented according to the overarching themes and sub-themes that emerged from the data.

This chapter presents the conclusion and recommendations of the study. Its purpose is to demonstrate that the research questions outlined in Chapter 1 have been addressed. This final chapter includes the following sections: introduction, summary of the main findings, comments on the suitability of the third-generation activity theory, contribution and limitations of the study. The rest are recommendations, suggestions for further research and conclusion to the chapter.

Using a qualitative approach with multiple data collection methods, this study investigated the efficacy of teaching practice implemented by the University of Zambia in schools. The participants were purposively selected and comprised eight teacher educators, 24 student teachers and ten supervising teachers. The study was anchored in the third-generation activity theory to analyse the opinions of the participants about their experiences of teaching practice. The main research question was: **How effective is teaching practice conducted by the University of Zambia for the preparation of teachers to teach in secondary schools in Zambia?** To address the research question, the following questions guided the investigation:

- What are teacher educators' opinions about their experiences of teaching practice in Zambian secondary schools?
- What are supervising teachers' opinions about their experiences of teaching practice in Zambian secondary schools?
- What are student teachers' opinions about their experiences of teaching practice in Zambian secondary schools?
- What is the role of supervising teachers in teaching practice?

- What challenges do the University of Zambia face in conducting the teaching practice programme?
- What improvements can be made in terms of the conduct of the teaching practice programme in secondary schools in Zambia?

6.2 SUMMARY OF THE MAIN FINDINGS

6.2.1 Participants' opinions about their experiences of teaching practice

The findings of the study have established that the teaching practice implemented by the University of Zambia in schools is ineffective. Several organisational and logistical challenges were responsible for this as discussed in Chapter 5. For example, due to a reduction in learning time and inadequate learning facilities, it was difficult to provide quality training to student teachers. In addition, limited funding for teacher training negatively affected the implementation of teaching practice. This finding is in line with a study conducted by Hamman and Romano (2009:2).

Regarding the actual implementation of teaching practice in schools, the findings indicate that student teachers were adequately prepared in subject content knowledge. This finding is consistent with Göcer's (2013:125) findings that student teachers demonstrated knowledge of subject matter during teaching practice. However, the findings suggest that student teachers had inadequate knowledge and skills in teaching methodology. Supervising teachers unanimously confirmed the lacklustre performance of student teachers in teaching methods while the teacher educators' position on this matter was unclear as they held divergent views. This study's findings are consistent with the findings in the literature (see Chunmei & Chuanjun, 2015:235; Caires et al., 2010:17; Göcer, 2013:125), which established that student teachers experienced challenges in teaching methodology and strategies.

Furthermore, effective implementation of teaching practice could not be attained due to the short duration of six weeks allocated to it, which the participants deemed to be inadequate. The supervision and evaluation of student teachers was also problematic as it revealed several weaknesses (Refer to Chapter 5 subsection 5.7.1). For example, the final comments made on the lesson evaluation form were so brief that they were not helpful to the student teachers. The instruction on the lesson

evaluation form which read, in part, “The categories are not equally weighted. Therefore, the total does not necessarily translate into a grade”, also made the evaluation of student teachers difficult especially for inexperienced teacher educators. Findings also revealed that due to the inadequacies in the lesson evaluation form, some departments at the University of Zambia had designed their own form, while some teacher educators allowed supervising teachers to use the form designed by their schools. Findings show that there are no guidelines on how student teachers should be evaluated. Furthermore, it was established that the School of Education and schools do not hold joint reviews of the teaching practice programme probably due to a lack of meaningful collaboration between them.

This study has established that there is a discrepancy between the knowledge and skills taught in teacher education programmes and the requirements of the workplace. This finding is in line with other studies that established a discrepancy between the theory learned in teacher training institutions and practice in schools (See Meijer et al., 2011:115; Masaiti & Manchishi, 2011:319). The conclusion of the participants’ views is that the teaching practice implemented by the University of Zambia in schools is ineffective.

6.2.2 The role of supervising teachers in teaching practice

The study established that there was a lack of clarity and consensus on the role of supervising teachers by both teacher educators and supervising teachers. This finding is consistent with the findings of Jeanne (2009:89) and Zang et al. (2015:147) that revealed a lack of clarity in the roles that teacher educators and supervising teachers should play in teaching practice. It was also evident from the findings that none of the teacher educators and supervising teachers had been trained in student teacher supervision. This probably made it difficult for teacher educators to interpret the role of supervising teachers in teaching practice. Neither were the latter knowledgeable about their role. As argued in Chapter 5 subsection 5.7.2, teacher educators’ failure to understand the supervising teachers’ role made it difficult for them to decide on the assistance to give the supervising teachers during teaching practice. A common understanding of the role of supervising teachers could enhance and standardise the implementation of teaching practice.

Despite the important role that supervising teachers ought to play in teaching practice, supervising teachers felt that they were being side-lined. One supervising teacher, for example, complained about how difficult it was even to meet a teacher educator during teaching practice. This resulted in teaching practice becoming less interactive.

6.2.3 Challenges faced in conducting teaching practice in schools

The study established that the University of Zambia faced many challenges during the implementation of teaching practice. Among the challenges were a reduction in contact time for demonstrations and peer teaching, the short duration for teaching practice and lack of collaboration between the University of Zambia and schools. The reduction in demonstrations and peer teaching time was confirmed by both teacher educators and supervising teachers while the short duration for teaching practice and the lack of collaboration were confirmed by all of the participants.

Findings revealed that the University of Zambia had one of the shortest durations for teaching (i.e. six weeks) compared with universities in Malaysia (Bakar et al., 2012), and Zimbabwe (Maphosa & Ndamba, 2012; Mashava & Chingombe, 2013), which had an average of 14 weeks. The study also established that there was no collaboration between the University of Zambia and schools. Similar studies conducted by Celen and Akcan (2017), Robinson (2016), Nguyen (2015), White et al. (2010) and Zeichner (2006) have also acknowledged the lack of collaboration between universities and schools. The lack of collaboration between the University of Zambia teacher educators and supervising teachers had a negative impact on the implementation of teaching practice in schools. Student teachers faced difficulties in finding a school for teaching practice, which could probably be attributed to the University of Zambia's failure to make prior arrangements with schools.

6.2.4 Improving the implementation of teaching practice

One of the major findings of the study was that most of the participants advocated a radical change in the way the University of Zambia implements teaching practice in schools. The proposed change was that the School of Education should be separated from the other schools of the University of Zambia. The participants hoped that this would result in many benefits such as an increase in the time for student

teachers' training and teaching practice at the University of Zambia and schools respectively. An increase in the time for student teachers' training would, for example, create opportunities for student teachers to be involved in micro-teaching prior to school teaching practice period. Additionally, an increase in the duration for teaching practice would be in line with the Zambia Education Curriculum Framework of 2012 which stipulates that teaching practice should not be less than one full term (approximately 14 weeks) (MoESVTEE, 2012:49). In addition, the evaluation and supervision of student teachers would be enhanced as teacher educators would have more time for lesson observations and feedback (see subsection 6.4.1 for details). A well-arranged feedback time could help student teachers understand what they did right or wrong and where they need to improve in their teaching. Having presented the summary of the main findings, some comments on the suitability of the third-generation activity theory to the study are made in the next section.

6.3 COMMENTS ON THE SUITABILITY OF THE THIRD GENERATION ACTIVITY THEORY

The third-generation activity theory was found to be a suitable framework to arrange and analyse data related to the participants' opinions about their experiences of teaching practice implemented by the University of Zambia in schools. In the third-generation activity theory, the unit of analysis, which was teaching practice, was no longer an individual but a joint activity (Bourke et al., 2013:39). This is one of the main reasons why participants for this study were drawn from two activity systems comprising the University of Zambia and schools (See Figure 3.5). As illustrated in Figure 3.5, the two activity systems shared a common goal of preparing a student teacher to teach and manage a class during teaching practice according to the University of Zambia guidelines. Both teacher educators and supervising teachers worked together to ensure that their goal was achieved at the end of the teaching practice activity. Since teaching practice is a joint and interactive activity (See Figure 3.4), the activity theory was found to be a useful and appropriate tool in understanding the implementation of teaching practice.

Mudavanhu (2014:51) considers the activity theory as a robust "socio-cultural lens" which can be used to scrutinise human activity. In line with Mudavanhu's (2014:51) argument, the third-generation activity theory helped the researcher to analyse the

types of activity, participants in the activity, goals of the activity, the rules and norms and outcome of the teaching practice implemented by the University of Zambia in schools. Teaching practice is an activity that met these criteria. Additionally, Mudavanhu's argument reaffirms Sannino et al.'s (2009:1) findings that the activity theory aims at "analysing development within practical social activities" in which people, for example, nurture their skills and personality. This view is consistent with this study that evaluated the development process of student teachers' skills while on training and teaching practice. The evaluation of student teachers' skills was possible because the activity theory as a conceptual framework can be used to explain, scrutinise and interpret human activity (Razak et al., 2018:19) (Refer to Figure 3.5).

The researcher was guided by the elements of the activity system elaborated on by Burnard and Younker (2008), Mtika (2008) and Mudavanhu (2016). The elements were "subject, object, tools, the division of labour, community, rules, and outcome". Engeström considered these elements as very important to human activity (Song & Kim, 2016:136) as they help researchers to analyse the complexity of the case under study. In a similar manner, these elements helped the researcher not only to remain focused throughout the study but to apply them effectively to the two activity systems, namely the University of Zambia and the schools as explained in Chapter 3 section 3.5 and illustrated in Figure 3.5.

The study has revealed that instructions aimed at utilising the multiple points of view "of activity systems and the contradictions of multi-disciplinary practice can be used to inspire learning and practise change" (Meyer & Lees, 2013:662). This study relied on multiple view points from the teaching practice triad members. Thus, tensions or contradictions prevailing in teaching practice implemented by the University of Zambia were identified. The identified contradictions might ignite a genuine desire and impetus for change among the key players in teaching practice. This is because, as noted in Chapter 3 subsection 3.2.3, when contradictions in an activity system are analysed, they become a potential source of learning (Avis, 2009:160). Responding to contradictions in the teaching practice programme is in line with Yamagata-Lynch and Haudenschild's (2009:509) view that using the third-generation activity theory in research is useful because of its "interventionist nature". This view is also shared by

Roth and Tobin (2002:108) who state that the activity theory can be used to identify the challenges that affect the implementation of teaching practice to ameliorate the theory-practice divide. In the process, the theory helps in expanding existing knowledge as well as opening new ways to improve theory and practice (Lee, 2011:404). Having explained the suitability of the third-generation activity theory to the study, the next section presents highlights of the major contributions of the study.

6.4 CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY

The researcher believes this study has made three important contributions. The contributions are presented under separate headings below.

6.4.1 How the University of Zambia can implement teaching practice effectively

First, the study has made an attempt at narrowing the gap between theory and practice by proposing guidelines that the University of Zambia can use to implement teaching practice more effectively in schools. The guidelines are a response to the aims of the study as envisaged in Chapter 1, namely to provide insights into how teaching practice should be implemented in secondary schools. As argued in Chapter 1 section 1.4, the primary aim of analysing an educational or training programme such as teaching practice is to provide information so that decisions can be made about the programme (Alhwiti, 2007:41). The guidelines for teaching practice are, therefore, the main contribution that this study has made. Central to this suggestion is that the School of Education should be separated from the other schools of the University of Zambia.

The University of Zambia has been following a traditional university-based teacher education approach (Masaiti & Manchishi, 2011:3) in which the culmination of the theoretical university course is the placement of a student teacher in a school for teaching practice (Hendrikse, 2013:1; Chunmei & Chuanjun, 2015:232). Masaiti and Manchishi (2011:3) note that this approach is more “tilted towards theory than practice”. To minimise the impact of the weak relationship between coursework and practice, some teacher training institutions combine different models in a variety of ways (Mattsson et al., 2011:9), while new approaches allow for the integration of theory with practice during the entire teacher training period (Goodnough et al.,

2008:285; Du Plessis & Marais, 2013:215). The proposed guidelines for teaching practice are largely based on the practical realities of the University of Zambia and the views of the teaching practice triad members. What follows is a brief description of the proposed guidelines for teaching practice.

In developing guidelines to improve the implementation of teaching practice, three important steps were taken. The first step identified challenges highlighted by the participants in the study as well as from the document analysis. The second step considered participants' suggestions on how the University of Zambia could improve the implementation of teaching practice. In the third step, all the ideas under steps 1 and 2 were analysed, including some of the best practices discussed in the literature review. This culminated in the development of guidelines for the implementation of teaching practice. The guidelines are anchored in three key stages in the teaching practice process that were identified during the analysis of the data. These were training, implementation, and supervision and evaluation. These three key stages are subsequently discussed:

- *Timing*

In terms of duration, content and programme structure of the Bachelor of Arts with Education and Bachelor of Science with Education degree programmes, the *status quo* can be maintained with only slight amendments. However, first level teaching methods in the student teacher's major teaching subject can commence in the second year. This will allow for more time for lesson demonstrations and peer teaching. The suggested strategy presupposes that both training and practice will to a large extent run concurrently.

Since the School will have its own academic calendar, it will provide more time to student teachers to do peer teaching and attend 'demonstration schools'. Due to the institution's financial challenges, a demonstration school may not be established immediately. Therefore, it is proposed that the School collaborates with secondary schools nearby and makes use of their facilities for lesson demonstrations. Further, as proposed by supervising teacher SupTC and teacher educator TEH, supervising teachers should be invited by the School as guest lecturers to conduct lesson demonstrations. Such a joint approach to training will not only professionalise the

training of teachers but will also promote collaboration between teacher educators and supervising teachers which were found to be lacking.

- *Strengthening relationships between the University of Zambia and schools*

To facilitate the implementation of teaching practice, the University of Zambia coordinator for the School Teaching Practice should arrange the placement of student teachers well in advance. This will avoid loss of time for teaching practice and put an end to the problem student teachers faced in securing schools. In terms of the actual implementation, the University of Zambia in collaboration with schools should agree on the frequency and duration for teaching practice.

There will be a need to strengthen collaboration between the University of Zambia and schools. Strong collaboration will only be possible when participants trust and work together towards a common goal (Crawford et al., 2009:95). The collaboration will entail among other things joint planning and implementation of teaching practice by both teacher educators and supervising teachers. This will help to enrich the link between theory and practice (Smedley, 2001:192). Once the University of Zambia and schools enhance collaboration, their relationship will greatly improve and subsequently improve the implementation of teaching practice.

This study's findings have revealed that enhanced collaboration between the University of Zambia and schools. The findings have highlighted a greater need for tailor-made programmes such as those relating to mentoring of student teachers. It was evident from the findings that supervising teachers did not play their role effectively during teaching practice because they lacked mentoring skills. In a nutshell, there is a need for the University of Zambia in consultation with schools' administration to embark on professional development programmes such as mentor training courses which may not only help instil positive attitudes in teachers towards the profession but help improve the implementation of teaching practice too.

To enhance uniformity and standards, the University of Zambia and schools should come up with guidelines pertaining to the lesson evaluation form, format of lesson plan, number of lesson observations, areas of focus in lesson observation, and the time for teaching practice. In the proposed strategy, the duration of teaching practice will be expected to meet the Ministry of Education's requirement of not less than one

full term (MoESVTEE, 2012:49). To satisfy this requirement, the implementation of teaching practice may be taking place in the first or second term of the school calendar.

- *Training*

Training of both teacher educators and supervising teachers in the supervision of student teachers will be necessary considering the participants' claim that they had not been trained in this area. In addition, the School should spell out clearly the role of the supervising teachers in teaching practice. This will help them execute their role in a professional and standardised manner. The inclusion of both teacher educators and supervising teachers in the supervision and evaluation of student teachers will be a positive response to Rodgers and Keil's (2007:63) proposal that "educators have the opportunity to redesign the student teaching experience generally – and the supervision structure specifically – so that it is aligned with current theories regarding the supervision". This is because when supervision is conducted properly it can contribute to the quality of student teacher training (Coimbra, 2013:65; Owusu & Brown, 2014:25).

To enhance the quality of teaching practice, both student teachers and the entire teaching practice process should be evaluated. Both teacher educators and supervising teachers should participate in evaluating student teachers to avoid the master-servant approach where "most power lies with the training institution" (Zeichner, 2010:90). In short, the approach should be for both teacher educators and supervising teachers to treat each other as experts and equal partners in teaching practice to enhance collaboration. In addition, in assessing student teachers only letter grades should be awarded and ultimately used in the final degree classification. The inclusion of teaching practice grades for the degree classification is likely to motivate student teachers to take teaching practice more seriously.

In this study, the findings have indicated that teacher educators and supervising teachers have different focus areas during supervision and evaluation and that comments on evaluation forms are too brief. There is a need to establish areas of focus for evaluation. Included in the proposed teaching practice guidelines is that teacher educators will be required to observe student teachers at least twice since it is expected that the separation of the School from other faculties will result in more

time for teaching practice. This will also allow time for a more interactive and productive discussion with student teachers after lesson observation. Further, the final comments on the lesson evaluation form should reflect the content of the lesson observed so that a student teacher can learn from them. This is because evaluation provides an opportunity to the student teacher to understand his/her performance and benefit from the process (Maphosa & Ndamba, 2012:77).

This study proposes that since the Ministry of Education is the main employer of student teachers from the University of Zambia, it should take a keen interest in the training process, particularly in the teaching practice component. The involvement of the Ministry of Education in the supervision and evaluation of student teachers is likely to influence the way the University of Zambia implements teaching practice in schools. If carefully planned and executed, the suggested guidelines could achieve the intended educational goals in line with Zambia's education policy which affirms that the quality and effectiveness of an education system depends on the quality of its teachers (MoESVTEE, 2012:18).

To conclude, the proposed guidelines have responded to the contradictions and challenges that are prevalent in teaching practice. It is hoped that awareness of these challenges by key players in teacher education can help bridge the apparent gap between theory and practice. In addition, the guidelines have been constructed on the premise that the School of Education will be separated from the other faculties of the University of Zambia. The benefits of such a separation would include more time for peer teaching and teaching practice itself. The separation will lead the School of Education to have its own academic calendar and to handle both subject content and teaching methods courses. It is, therefore, envisaged that this change will facilitate the harmonisation of both subject content and teaching methods courses and subsequently enhance the implementation of teaching practice. The proposed guidelines are likely to succeed if the suggestions made for the improvements in the implementation of teaching practice are put into practice and supported by all role players.

6.4.2 Provision of a platform to the ‘voiceless’ student teachers

This study contributes to the international debate on teaching practice. The contribution is that student teachers who are considered to be ‘voiceless’ even in matters in which they are directly involved such as teaching practice, have been given a platform to express their views (Korthagen et al., 2006:20). It is common to leave student teachers out of research on teaching practice as they are considered to be inexperienced (Hoyt & Pallett, 1999:1). In this regard, questions on student teachers’ experiences of teaching practice are often ignored (Caires et al., 2012:165). However, in this study, student teachers were included and accounted well for themselves. Therefore, the researcher thinks that student teachers can contribute significantly to the generation of new knowledge and understanding of teaching practice.

6.4.3 Generation of information to the existing literature

As stated in Chapter 1, teaching practice has been an under-researched area, especially in the developing countries, such as Zambia. This has been acknowledged by many scholars such as Mtika (2008:16) and Ong’ondo and Jwan (2009:522). Therefore, this study contributes to reducing the gap that exists in the literature on teaching practice implemented by the University of Zambia (see subsection 6.2.1). This is important considering that from the literature reviewed for the study only three relevant studies on the University of Zambia’s teaching practice were identified (see Manchishi & Mwanza, 2013; Simuyaba et al., 2015; Masaiti & Manchishi, 2011). In this regard, the findings of this study are important as they build on earlier research studies, which investigated other aspects of teaching practice. The study has provided more insight into and contributed to the growth of knowledge about teaching practice, how it is organised, implemented and its challenges. Despite the highlighted positive contributions, the study has some limitations. These limitations are presented in the next section.

6.5 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The study has two limitations, which are both related to the methodology of the study. The first limitation is that only a small number of supervising teachers were involved in the study considering that there were others within the city of Lusaka.

The small number, however, sufficed for the study as it was a qualitative study which required only participants whose expansive knowledge and experience of teaching practice would enable the researcher to collect data that would address the research question. This position is consistent with many researchers who have argued that there is a tendency to base their research on fewer cases in qualitative designs (Silverman & Marvasti, 2008:14; Gray, 2009:180; Merriam, 2009:16; Sorensen, 2014:132; Manyasi, 2014:55). This is because qualitative data is often detailed (O'Leary, 2010:164) as was the case in this study.

In addition, to enhance credibility and trustworthiness of the study, the researcher used methodological triangulation and made conclusions based on the data collected from multiple sources (Bowen, 2009:28; Yin, 2011:9). Further, similar comments were collected within and across groups on similar questions which not only validated the instruments used in this study but also enhanced the credibility of the study. This is in line with Tracy's (2013:167) argument that through group interaction, "participants' experiences are validated". Therefore, the use of interviews with different groups of participants not only yielded rich information but helped the researcher to discover "the construction and negotiation of meanings in a natural setting" (Cohen et al., 2007:29) as well. It also enabled the researcher to get the participants' perspectives on the issue being investigated more effectively (Hatch & Coleman-King, 2015:452).

The second limitation is that the study was confined to the University of Zambia and surrounding schools within the city of Lusaka. Considering this, the information cannot be generalised to other learning institutions. According to Thomas (2013:150), the aim of a case study is to have a deeper and clearer understanding of the issue being investigated because many aspects of the case are investigated in detail. This is exactly what this study aimed at achieving. Therefore, the findings of this study have generated further insights into the effectiveness of teaching practice implemented by the University of Zambia, which scholars can learn about and/or probe further. Having presented the limitations of the study, the next section outlines recommendations in line with the findings and conclusions of the study.

6.6 RECOMMENDATIONS

In view of the preceding findings and conclusions, the following recommendations are proposed:

6.6.1 Effective training and adequate support for student teachers

To successfully implement teaching practice, it is important that the University of Zambia train student teachers effectively and provide them with enough support. For example, student teachers can be exposed to more peer teaching exercises and demonstration schools, while teaching and learning materials should be made available. This is because the improvement of the quality of education in schools is closely associated with producing quality teachers for and within the schooling system.

6.6.2 Collaboration with schools should be enhanced

It is recommended that the University of Zambia should enhance its collaboration with schools. This can be achieved through regular joint learning activities such as training courses, seminars and workshops. The learning activities can include a variety of subjects such as the application of information and communications technologies in teaching, and pedagogical and general teaching skills. This will help participants acquire knowledge about new teaching practices and their roles in teaching practice. Collaboration can yield many benefits such as facilitating change and creating conditions that can aid the personal transformation of the participants.

The study has noted that collaboration in such areas as supervision and evaluation between the University of Zambia and the schools was lacking. The researcher's recommendation is that the implementation of teaching practice should be collaborative in all these areas because as argued in Chapter 3 subsection 3.3.2, teaching practice is a joint activity in which participants interact to achieve set goals. In this regard, collaboration at every stage of implementation will be critical.

6.6.3 Evaluation of teaching practice should be holistic

It is being recommended that evaluation of teaching practice should take on a holistic approach. While teaching practice should be considered a joint activity, it should also be seen as an on-going process that must be appraised at various

stages. The stages to be appraised by teacher educators include on-campus training, and specifically peer teaching. Teacher educators and supervising teachers should both be involved in evaluating student teachers on teaching practice in schools. Similarly, when teaching practice has ended, teacher educators and supervising teachers should jointly review the entire process of teaching practice. This could help minimise problems such as those arising from the administration of the lesson evaluation forms. This should be a permanent joint activity to effectively address the challenges faced by the University of Zambia in implementing teaching practice. Furthermore, to enhance and standardise evaluation, both teacher educators and supervising teachers should undertake training in the supervision of student teachers on teaching practice.

In conclusion, the researcher recommends that the University of Zambia together with schools adopts the proposed guidelines outlined in subsection 6.4.1. However, before the guidelines are adopted, there should be consensus between the two institutions. In this regard, some of the guidelines may be implemented as they are or amended to suit the situation. Attention should be paid to guidelines that relate to the roles of the participants, rules governing teaching practice, and how evaluation should be conducted. The importance of guidelines for teaching practice is that they could facilitate the implementation of teaching practice in schools as all the participants will understand their roles clearly. This will also help eradicate the role confusion highlighted by Montecinos et al. (2015:1), and Hamman and Romano (2009:2). Having dealt with the recommendations, the study makes suggestions in the next section for further research pertaining to the implementation of teaching practice.

6.7 SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The findings of this study suggest some avenues for further research. The suggested areas may not only augment the findings of this study but may also clarify those that seem inconclusive. The researcher proposes that a study of a similar nature, in which the focus is on the effectiveness of lessons taught by student teachers, may enhance our understanding of the extent of the efficacy of teaching practice implemented by the University of Zambia. This would be in line with Alhwiti (2007:4) who noted that an important strategy for evaluating a teacher education programme

is to measure the effectiveness of the quality of the performance of its graduates in real settings. The focus of such a study could be on examining the extent to which student teachers are able to translate theory into practice.

Another area for research could be an investigation into the relevance to the secondary school's curriculum of subject content taught at the University of Zambia. To what extent is the content meeting the needs of the learner and that of the nation at large?

A similar research study to the current one, investigating the effectiveness of teaching practice, could be conducted but should compare the implementation of teaching practice at the University of Zambia with other teacher training institutions.

6.8 CONCLUSION TO THE CHAPTER

Based on the participants' views, it has been concluded that the implementation of teaching practice by the University of Zambia is not ideal. This has been attributed to various challenges among which the most prominent one was the short duration of teaching practice and lack of adequate preparation in several areas. The challenges are mainly of an administrative and financial nature. Many of the experiences described by the study participants were in line with the findings in the literature. For example, student teachers were reported to have inadequate knowledge and skills in teaching methods but adequate subject content knowledge.

The study has demonstrated that coordination and collaboration can play a major role in the implementation of teaching practice in schools. It is, therefore, hoped that this study will influence the way teacher educators and supervising teachers collaborate in the teaching practice programme to make it more effective. As argued throughout this thesis, teaching practice is a process whose quality should be closely monitored at every stage of student teacher preparation to ensure effective implementation. The involvement of the Ministries of Higher Education and General Education in the training of teachers in general could contribute to the quality of training teachers at the University of Zambia.

The findings suggest that each of the participants in teaching practice has an important role to play because this is an interactive activity. However, for participants to play a pivotal role and enhance the implementation of teaching practice, they all

need to be knowledgeable about their roles to avoid tension and role confusion. The study established that there was no consensus or clarity on the role of the supervising teacher. As part of the strategy for implementing teaching practice, training in the supervision of student teachers has been incorporated. Adopting the suggested guidelines for teaching practice may not only enhance the implementation of teaching practice by the University of Zambia but may also contribute to the reduction in the theory-practice gap in teaching practice.

REFERENCES

- Aalst, V. J. & Hill, C. M. 2006. Activity theory as a framework for analysing knowledge building. *Learning Environments Research*, (9), 23-44.
- Adoniou, M. 2013. Preparing teachers: The importance of connecting contexts in teacher education. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 38(8), 47-60.
- Akcan, S. 2016. Novice non-native English teachers' reflections on their teacher education programmes and their first years of teaching. *Profile: Issues in Teachers' Professional Development*, 18(1), 55-70.
- Akcan, S. & Tatar, S. 2010. An investigation of the nature of feedback given to pre-service English teachers during their practice teaching experience. *Teacher Development*, 14(2), 153-172.
- Alhwiti, A. H. 2007. Teacher perceptions of the effectiveness of the Social Studies teacher training program at Tabouk Teachers' College in Saudi Arabia. Unpublished DEd in Curriculum and Instruction, West Virginia University.
- Allen, J. M. 2011. Stakeholders' perspectives of the nature and role of assessment during practicum. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 27(4), 742-750.
- Allen, J. M., Ambrosetti, A. & Turner, D. 2013. How school and university supervising staff perceive the pre-service teacher education practicum: A comparative study. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 38(4), 108-128.
- Allen, J. M., Butler-Mader, C. & Smith, R. A. 2010. A fundamental partnership: The experiences of practising teachers as lecturers in a pre-service teacher education programme. *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice*, 16(5), 615-632.
- Allen, J. M. & Peach, D. 2007. Exploring connections between the in-field and on campus components of a preservice teacher education program: A student perspective. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Cooperative Education*, 8(1), 23-36.

- Allen, J. M. & Wright, S. E. 2014. Integrating theory and practice in the pre-service teacher education practicum. *Teachers and Teaching*, 20(2), 136-151.
- Al-Momani, F. 2016. Challenges of practicum at college of education: Supervisors and student teachers' perspective. *International Journal of Novel Research in Humanity and Social Sciences*, 3(3), 45-52. Available at: www.noveltyjournals.com.
- Alshenqeeti, H. 2014. Interviewing as a data collection method: A critical review. *English Linguistics Research*, 3(1), 39-45.
- Altan, Z. M. & Sanglamei, H. 2015. Student teaching from perspectives of cooperating teachers and pupils. *Cogent Education*, 2(1), 1-16.
- Amedeker, K. M. 2005. Reforming Ghanaian teacher education towards preparing an effective pre-service teacher. *Journal of Education for Teaching: International Research and Pedagogy*, 31(2), 99-110.
- Anney, V. 2014. Ensuring the quality of the findings of qualitative research: Looking at trustworthiness criteria. *Journal of Emerging Trends in Educational Research and Policy Studies*, 5(2), 272-281.
- Anyon, J. 2005. What "counts" as educational policy? Notes toward a new paradigm. *Harvard Educational Review*, 75(1), 65-88.
- Arnseth, H. C. 2008. Activity theory and situated learning theory: Contrasting views of educational practice. *Pedagogy, Culture and Society*, 16(3), 289-302.
- Ary, D., Jacobs, C. L., Razavieh, A. & Sorensen, C. 2010. *Introduction to research in education*. Wadsworth. Cengage Learning.
- Asada, T. 2012. Mentoring novice teachers in Japanese schools. *International Journal of Mentoring and Coaching in Education*, 1(1), 54-65.
- Asare, K. B. & Nti, S. K. 2014. Teacher education in Ghana: A contemporary synopsis and matters arising. *SAGE Open*, 4(2), 1-8.

- Asplin, N. K. & Marks, J. M. 2013. Interpretation and implementation of teaching and learning theories. *The Professional Educator*, 37(1), 1-10.
- Atputhasamy, L. 2005. Cooperating teachers as school-based teacher educators: Student teachers' expectations. *Australian Journal of Education*, 30(2), 1-11.
- Avalos, B. 2007. How young teachers experience their professional work in Chile. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 23(4), 515-528.
- Avis, J. 2009. Transformation or transformism: Engeström's version of activity theory? *Educational Review*, 61(2), 151-165.
- Baek, S. G. & Ham, E. H. 2009. An evaluation study on the educational value of teaching practicum in secondary schools. *Asia-Pacific Education Review*, 10(2), 271-280.
- Bailey, M. & Thompson, P. 2008. "It makes you feel a bit more free": Interpreting students' views of study support. *Educational Review*, 60(3), 283-297.
- Bakar, A. R., Mohamed, S. & Zakaria, S. N. 2012. They are trained to teach, but how confident are they? A study of student teachers' sense of efficacy. *Journal of Social Sciences*, 8(4), 497-504.
- Bakhurst, D. 2009. Reflections on activity theory. *Educational Review*, 61(2), 197-210.
- Banda, D. 2008. *Education for all (EFA) and the 'African indigenous knowledge systems (AIKS)': The case of the Chewa people in Zambia*. Doctor of Philosophy. The University of Nottingham.
- Barab, S. A., Barnett, M., Yamagata-Lynch, L., Squire, K. & Keating, T. 2002. Using activity theory to understand the systemic tensions characterizing a technology-rich introductory astronomy course. *Mind, Culture and Activity*, (September 2011), 37-41.
- Bechhofer, F. & Paterson, L. 2000. *Principles of research design in social sciences*. London:Routledge.

- Beeth, M. E. & Adadan, E. 2006. The influences of university-based coursework on field experience. *Journal of Science Teacher Education*, 17(2), 103-120.
- Belliveau, G. 2007. An alternative practicum model for teaching and learning. *Canadian Journal of Education*, 30(1), 47-67.
- Belotto, J. M. 2018. Data analysis methods for qualitative research: Managing the challenges of coding, interrater reliability and thematic analysis. *The Qualitative Report*, 23(11), 2622-2633.
- Bengtsson, M. 2016. How to plan and perform a qualitative study using content analysis. *NursingPlus Open*, 2, 8-14.
- Berg, B. L. 2001. *Qualitative research methods for the social sciences*. London: A Pearson Education Inc.
- Best, W. J. & Kahn, J. V. 2008. *Research in Education*. New Delhi: Prentice Hall.
- Best, W. J. & Kahn, J.V. 2006. *Research In Education*. 10th edition. New York: Longman.
- Binjumah, M.S.S. 2017. Using activity theory to explore the perspectives of participants on an initial teacher education programme for science teachers in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. Doctor of Philosophy in Education. The University of Exeter.
- Bitsch, V. 2005. Qualitative research: A grounded theory example and evaluation criteria. *Journal of Agribusiness*, 23(1), 75-91.
- Bligh, B. & Flood, M. 2017. Activity theory in empirical higher education research: choices, uses and values. *Tertiary Education and Management*, 23(2), 125-152.
- Bloomfield, D. & Nguyen, H. T. 2015. Creating and sustaining professional learning communities. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 40(11), 23-44.

- Bloxham, S. & Campbell, L. 2010. Generating dialogue in assessment feedback: Exploring the use of interactive cover sheet. *Assessment and Evaluation in Higher Education*, 35(3), 291-300.
- Bogdan, C. R. & Bicklen, K. S. 2007. *Qualitative research for education: An introduction to theory and methods*. 5th ed. New York: Pearson Education Inc.
- Boshoff, E. M. 2014. *Professional development of academic staff in private higher education*. Doctor of Philosophy. Faculty of Education, University of Pretoria.
- Bourke, R., Mentis, M. & O'Neill, J. O. 2013. Using activity theory to evaluate a professional learning and development initiative in the use of narrative assessment. *Cambridge Journal of Education*, 43(1), 35-50.
- Bowen, G. A. 2009. Document analysis as a qualitative research method. *Qualitative Research Journal*, 9(2), 27-40.
- Bowen, G. A. 2009. Supporting a grounded theory with an audit trail: An illustration. *International Journal of Social Research Methodology*, 12(4), 305-316.
- Braun, V. & Clarke, V. 2012. Thematic analysis. In Cooper, H., Camic, M. P., Long, L. D., Panter, T. A. D., Rindskopf, D. & Sher, J. K. (Eds.), *APA handbook of research methods in psychology: Research designs: Quantitative, qualitative, neuropsychological, and biological* Vol. 2, (pp. 57-71). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.
- Braun, V. & Clarke, V. 2006. Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, 3(2), 77-101.
- Burnard, P. 2004. Writing a qualitative research. *Nurse Education Today*, (24), 174-179.
- Burnard, P., Gill, P., Stewart, E., Treasure, E. & Chadwick, B. 2008. Analysing and presenting qualitative data. *British Dental Journal*, 2004(8), 429-432.
- Burnard, P. & Younker, A. B. 2008. Investigating children's musical interactions within the activities systems of group composing and arranging: An application of Engeström's activity theory. *International Journal of Educational Research*,

47(1), 60-74.

- Butler, A. 2001. Preservice music teachers' conceptions of teaching effectiveness, microteaching experiences, and teaching performance. *Journal of Research in Music Education*, 49(3), 258-272.
- Caires, S., Almeida, L. & Martins, C. 2010. The socio-emotional experiences of student teachers during practicum: A case of reality shock? *Journal of Educational Research*, 103(1), 17-27.
- Caires, S. & Almeida, L. S. 2005. Teaching practice in initial teacher education: Its impact on student teachers' professional skills and development. *Journal of Education for Teaching*, 31(2), 111-120.
- Caires, S., Almeida, L. & Vieira, D. 2012. Becoming a teacher: Student teachers' experiences and perceptions about teaching practice. *European Journal of Teacher Education*, 35(2), 163–178.
- Campbell, F. T. 2013. *Teacher supervision and evaluation: A case study of administrators' and teachers' perceptions of mini observations*. Education doctoral thesis. Paper 84. Northeastern University.
- Cantalini-Williams, M., Cooper, L., Grierson, A., Maynes, N., Rich, S., Tessaro, M. L., Brewer, C. A., Tedesco, S. & Wideman-Johnson, T. 2014. *Innovative practicum models in teacher education: The benefits, challenges and implementation implications of peer mentorship, service learning and international practicum experiences*. Toronto: Higher Education Quality Council of Ontario. <https://www.google.com/search?client=firefox-b-d&ei=9MiRX50aD06MlfAP8LmGsAw&q> Retrieved on 4 April 2016.
- Casey, D. & Murphy, K. 2009. Issues in using methodological triangulation in research. *Nurse Researcher*, 16(4), 40-55.
- Cashin, E. W. 1989. *Defining and evaluation college teaching*. IDEA paper No. 21. Centre for Faculty Evaluation and Development. Division of Continuing Education.

- Castañeda, P.L. & Garsón, Z. X. 2005. Tasting teaching flavours: A group of student-teachers' experiences in their practicum. *Profile* (6), 157-170.
- Celawu, U. M., Salawu, I. D. & Osuji, U. S. 2008. *EDU 635: Teaching practice manual*. National Open University of Nigeria. [www.nou.edu.ng/noun/NOUN OCL/pdf/EDU/EDU 735 TEACHING PRACTICE MANUAL](http://www.nou.edu.ng/noun/NOUN%20OCL/pdf/EDU/EDU%20735%20TEACHING%20PRACTICE%20MANUAL.pdf). pdf. Retrieved on 11 October, 2015.
- Celen, K. M. & Akcan, S. 2017. Evaluation of an ELT practicum programme from the perspectives of supervisors, student teachers and graduates. *Journal of Teacher Education and Educators*, 6(3), 251-274.
- Central Statistical Office (CSO) [Zambia]. 2012. *2010 Census of population and housing national analytical report*. Lusaka, Zambia: Central Statistical Office.
- Cheng, M. H. M., Cheng, A. Y. N. & Tang, S. Y. F. 2010. Closing the gap between the theory and practice of teaching: Implications for teacher education programmes in Hong Kong. *Journal of Education for Teaching: International Research and Pedagogy*, 36(1), 91-104.
- Chunmei, Y. A. N. & Chuanjun, H. E. 2015. "We are left in limbo!": Chinese EFL student teachers' teaching practicum experience. *Frontiers of Education in China*, 10(2), 226-250.
- Clark, K. S., Byrnes, D. & Sudweeks, R. R. 2015. A comparative examination of student teacher and intern perceptions of teaching ability at the pre-service and in-service stages. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 66 (2), 170-183.
- Clark, R. K. & Vealè, L. B. 2018. Strategies to enhance data collection and analysis in qualitative research. *Radiologic Technology*, 89(5), 482-485.
- Clarke, A., Triggs, V. & Nielsen, W. 2014. Cooperating teacher participation in teacher education: A review of literature. *Review of Educational Research*, 84(2), 163-202.
- Cochran-Smith, M. & Lytle, S. L. 1993. *Inside/outside: Teacher research and knowledge*. Language and literacy series. New York: Teachers College Press.

- Cohen, E., Hoz, R. & Kaplan, H. 2013. The practicum in preservice teacher education: A review of empirical studies. *Teaching Education*, 24(4), 345-380.
- Cohen, L., Manion, L. & Morrison, K. 2007. *Research methods in Education*. 6th Edition. London: Routledge Falmer.
- Coimbra, M. de N. C. T. 2013. Supervision and evaluation of teachers' perspectives. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences*, 3(5), 65-72.
- Collett, P. 2007. Initial preparation of secondary teachers: Implications for Australia. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 32(2), 1-12.
- Conroy, J., Hulme, M. & Menter, I. 2013. Developing a “clinical” model for teacher education. *Journal of Education for Teaching*, 39(5), 557-573.
- Cook, L., Smagorinsky, P., Fry, P., Konopak, B. & Moore, C. 2002. Problems in developing a constructivist approach to teaching: One teacher's transition from teacher preparation to teaching. *The Elementary School Journal*, 102(5), 389-413.
- Cooper, M. J. & Alvarado, A. 2006. *Recruitment and retention*. The International Institute for Educational Planning and the International Academy of Education. Paris: The International Institute for Education Planning (IIEP).
- Cope, G. D. 2014. Methods and meanings: Credibility and trustworthiness of qualitative research. *Oncology Nursing Forum*, 41 (1), 89-91.
- Craig, J. H., Kraft, J. R. & Du Plessis, J. 1998. *Teacher development: Making an impact*. USAID, Advancing basic education and literacy project. World bank, human network, effective schools and teachers.
- Crawford, P., Roberts, S. K. & Hickmann, R. 2009. All together now: Authentic university-school partnerships for professional development. *Childhood Education*, 85(2), 91-95.
- Creswell, J. W. 2009. *Research design: qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods approaches*. 3rd edition. London: Sage Publications.

- Cuenca, A., Schmeichel, M. B., Dinkelman, T. & Nichols, J. 2011. Creating a "third space" in student teaching: Implications for the university supervisor's status as outsider. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 27, (7), 1068-1077.
- Daniels, H. 2004. Activity theory, discourse and Bernstein. *Educational Review*, 56(2), 121-132.
- Darling-Hammond, L. 2006. Assessing teacher education: The usefulness of multiple measures for assessing program outcomes. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 57(2), 120-138.
- David, M. & Sutton, C. 2011. *Social research: An Introduction*. London: Sage Publications.
- Davies, B. M. 2007. *Doing a successful research project*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Davydov, V. V. 1999. The content and unresolved problems of activity theory. In Y. Engestrom, R. Miettinen, and R. Punamaki. (Eds). *Perspectives on Activity Theory*. Cambridge University Press: UK.
- Dawson, C. 2007. *A practical guide to research methods. Nervenheilkunde*. 3rd edition; Vol. 36. Oxford: How to content.
- Diamonti, M. & Diamonti, N. 1975. An organizational analysis of student teacher supervision. *Interchange*, 6(4), 27-33.
- Dladla, J. M. J. 2017. *The management of teaching and learning of street children in Gauteng schools*. Degree of Philosophiae Doctor in the faculty of education, University of Pretoria.
- Doecke, B. & Kostogriz, A. 2005. Teacher education and critical inquiry: The use of activity theory in exploring alternative understandings of language and literature. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 30(1), 15-25.
- Dooley, C. M., Dangel, J. R. & Farran, L. K. 2011. Current issues in teacher education: 2006–2009. *Action in Teacher Education*, 33(3), 298-313.

- Duffy, A.J. 2006. *Theory to practice: Explorations of students' perspectives on their student teaching practica*. Degree of Doctor of Education. Arcadia University.
- Du Plessis, E. C. & Marais, P. 2013. Emotional experiences of student teachers during teaching practice: A case study at Unisa. *Progressio*, 35 (1), 206-222.
- Du Plessis, E.C. & Marais, P. 2010. Adapt or die:The views of UNISA student teachers on teaching practice at schools. *Africa Education Review*, 7(2), 323-341.
- Dusto, C. 2014. *Exploring teacher candidates' perception of practicum placement within concurrent teacher education in two Ontario universities*. Doctoral Thesis. Faculty of Education, Brock University, St. Catharines, Ontario.
- Edson, C. H. 2005. Our past and present: Historical inquiry in education. In Sherman, R. R. & Webb, B. R. (Eds.), *Qualitative research in education: Focus and Methods*. London: Routledge Falmer.
- Edwards, A. 2010. How can Vygotsky and his legacy help us understand and develop teacher education? In Ellis, V., Edwards, A. & Smagorinsky, P. (Eds.), *Cultural-historical perspectives on teacher education and development*. London: Routledge.
- Eijck, M. & Roth, W-M. 2007. Rethinking the role of information technology-based research tools in students' development of scientific literacy. *Journal of Science Education and Technology*, 16(3), 225-238.
- Eisner, E. W. 1991. *The enlightened eye: Qualitative inquiry and the enhancement of educational practice*. Toronto: Collier Macmillan Canada.
- El Kadri, S. M. & Roth, W-M. 2015. The teaching practicum as a locus of multilevel school-based transformation. *Teaching Education*, 26(1), 17-37.
- Elligate, J. E. 2007. *Developing better practice for beginning primary teachers: the significance of the practicum*. Degree of Doctor of Education, Australian Catholic University.

- Endeley, M. N. 2014. Teaching Practice in Cameroon : The effectiveness of the University of Buea model and implications for quality. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 39(11), 147-160.
- Engeström, Y. 2001. Expansive learning at work: Toward an activity theoretical reconceptualization. *Journal of Education and Work*, 14(1),133-156.
- Engeström, Y. 1999. Innovative learning in work teams: Analysing cycles of knowledge creation in practice. In Engeström, Y., Miettinen, R. & Punamaki, R-L. (Eds.), *Perspectives on Activity Theory*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Engeström, Y. 1987. *Learning by expanding: An activity-theoretical approach to developmental research*. Helsinki, Finland: Orienta-Konsultit.
- Engeström, Y. & Kerosuo, H. 2007. From workplace learning to inter-organisational learning and back: The contribution of activity theory. *Journal of Workplace Learning*, 19(6), 336-342.
- Engeström, Y. & Miettinen, R. 1999. Activity theory and individual and social transformation. In Engeström, Y., Miettinen, R. & Punamaki, R-L. (Eds.), *Perspectives on activity theory*. New York: Cambridge University Press. Retrieved from <http://books.google.com/books?id= GCV CZy2XHD4C> on 17th April 2018.
- Fereday, J. & Muir-Cochrane, E. 2006. Demonstrating rigor using thematic analysis: A hybrid approach of inductive and deductive coding and theme development. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 5(1), 80-92.
- Fiedler, L.R., Mullen, L. & Finnegan, M. 2009. Portfolios in context : A comparative study in two preservice teacher education programs. *Journal of Research on Technology in Education*, 42(2), 99-122.
- Finch, H. & Lewis, J. 2003. Focus groups. In Ritchie, J & Lewis, J. (Eds.), *Qualitative research practice: A guide for social science students and researchers*. London: Sage Publications.

- Flick, U. 2009. *An Introduction to qualitative research*. 4th edition. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Fourie, J. 2015. *Investigating employee perceptions of the effectiveness of stress management interventions*. Degree Magister Commercii (Industrial Psychology). University of Pretoria.
- Fraser, W. J. 2007. *Preparing America's teachers*. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Fraser, W. J., Killen, R. & Nieman, M.M. 2005. Issues in competence and pre-service teacher education. Part 1. Can outcomes-based programmes produce competent teachers ? *Africa*, 19(2), 229-245.
- Gibson, J. W. & Brown, A. 2009. *Working with qualitative data*. Los Angeles: Sage Publications Ltd.
- Gobo, G. 2011. Ethnography. In Silverman, D. (Ed.), *Qualitative research*. 3rd edition. London: Sage Publications.
- Göcer, A. 2013. Teacher educators' and guidance teachers' evaluation of student teachers' teaching practice: A qualitative study. *Croatian Journal of Education*, (Special edition), 15(3), 125-147.
- Goh, P. S. & Blake, D. 2015. Teacher preparation in Malaysia: Needed changes. *Teaching in Higher Education*, 20(5), 469-480.
- Goh, P.S. & Matthews, B. 2011. Listening to the concerns of student teachers in Malaysia during teaching practice. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 36(3), 92-103.
- Goodnough, K., Osmond, P., Dibbon, D., Glassman, M. & Stevens, K. 2008. Exploring a triad model of student teaching: Pre-service teacher and cooperating teacher perceptions. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 25(2), 285-296.

- Graham, B. 2006. Conditions for successful field experiences: Perceptions of cooperating teachers. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 22(8), 1118-1129.
- Gray, C. C., Wright, R. P. & Pascoe, R. 2017. Raising the curtain: Investigating the practicum experiences of pre-service drama teachers. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 42(1), 36-53.
- Gray, E. D. 2009. *Doing research in the real world*. 2nd edition. Los Angeles: Sage Publications.
- Gravetter, J. F. & Forzano, B. L. N. 2012. *Research methods for the behavioural sciences*. Wadsworth: Cengage Learning.
- Greenhouse, P. M. 2013. Activity theory: A framework for understanding multi-agency working and engaging service users in change. *Educational Psychology in Practice*, 29(4), 404-415.
- Grudnoff, L. 2011. Rethinking the practicum: Limitations and possibilities. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education*, 39(3), 223-234.
- Gujjar, A. A., Naoreen, B., Saifi, S. & Bajwa, M. J. 2010. Teaching practice: Problems and issues in Pakistan. *International Online Journal of Educational Sciences*, 2(2), 339-361.
- Gujjar, A. A., Ramzan, M. & Bajwa, J. M. 2011. An evaluation of teaching practice: Practicum. *Pakistan Journal of Commerce and Social Sciences*, 5(2), 302-318.
- Gunn, A. C., Hill, M. F., Berg, D. & Haigh, M. 2016. The changing work of teacher educators in Aotearoa New Zealand: A view through activity theory. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education*, 44(4), 306-319.
- Hamaidi, D., Al-Shara, I., Arouri, Y. & Awwad, A. F. 2014. Student teachers' perspectives of practicum practices and challenges. *European Scientific Journal*, 10(13), 191-214.

- Hamman, D. & Romano, J. E. 2009. The desired cooperator: Pre-service preferences and role confusion during the teaching practicum. *Current Issues in Education*, 11(4), 1-12.
- Hammersley, M. 2013. *What Is Qualitative research?* London: Bloomsbury Publishing Plc.
- Hardman, J. 2008. Researching pedagogy: An activity theory approach. *Journal of Education*, 45(1), 65-95.
- Hardman, J. 2005. An exploratory case study of computer use in a primary school mathematics classroom: New technology, new pedagogy? *Perspectives in Education*, 23(4), 99-111.
- Hartley, D. 2009. Education policy, distributed leadership and socio-cultural theory. *Educational Review*, 61(2), 139-150.
- Hascher, T., Cocard, Y. & Moser, P. 2004. Forget about theory – practice is all? Student teachers' learning in practicum. *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice*, 10(6), 623-637.
- Hashim, H. N. & Jones, L. M. 2007. Activity theory: A framework for qualitative analysis. In *International Qualitative Research Convention (QRC)*. University of Wollongong, Research online. 3-5 September, PJ Jilton, Malaysia. https://pdfs.semanticscholar.org/9a51/4996f31e7d79ae5ab_ca4cf_8dae59c. Retrieved on 18th July 2018.
- Hatch, A. & Coleman-King, C. 2015. Conducting early childhood qualitative research in the twenty-first century. In Saracho, N. O. (Ed.), *Handbook of research methods in early childhood education*. Charlotte, NC: Information Age Publishing Inc.
- Hendrikse, J. V. 2013. *Teacher education by means of internship: A case study*. Master of Education in the subject Didactics. University of South Africa.
- Henn, M., Weinstein, M. & Foard, N. 2006. *A short introduction to social research*. London: Sage Publications.

- Hennissen, P., Beckers, H. & Moerkerke, G. 2017. Linking practice to theory in teacher education: A growth in cognitive structures. *Teaching and Teacher Education*. 63(April 2017), 314-325.
- Houghton, C., Casey, D., Shaw, D. & Murphy, K. 2013. Rigour in qualitative case-study research. *Nurse Researcher*, 20(4), 12-17. DOI: 10.7748/nr2013.03.20.4.12.e326.
- Hoyt, D. P. & Pallett, W. H. 1999. Appraising teaching effectiveness: Beyond student ratings. *The IDEA Center*, (1), 1-14.
- Human, E. N. 2017. *The role of a responsive curriculum in optimising learning in higher education*. Degree in Doctor of Education in the subject of Curriculum Studies. University of South Africa.
- Janssen, F., Westbroek, H. & Doyle, W. 2014. The practical turn in teacher education: Designing a preparation sequence for core practice frames. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 65(3), 195-206.
- Jeanne, M. A. 2009. *The "theory-practice gap": Turning theory into practice in a pre-service teacher education program*. Doctor of Philosophy. Central Queensland University.
- Jekayinfa, A. A., Yahaya, A. L., Yusuf, A., Ajidagba, A. U., Oniye, O. A., Oniyangi, O.S. & Ibraheem, O.T. 2012. Lecturers' assessment of teaching practice exercise in Nigerian universities. *Journal of Education and Practice*, 3(4), 79-85.
- Jonassen, D. H. & Rohrer-Murphy, L. 1999. Activity theory as a framework for designing constructivist learning environments. *Etr & D*, 47(1), 61-79.
- Jones, M., Hobbs, L., Kenny, J., Campbell, C., Chittleborough, G., Gilbert, A., Herbert, S. & Redman, C. 2016. Successful university-school partnerships: An interpretive framework to inform partnership practice. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 60 (2016), 108-120.

- Jurdak, M. 2006. Contrasting perspectives and performance of high school students on problem solving in real world, situated, and school contexts. *Educational Studies in Mathematics*, 63(3), 283-301.
- Jusoh, Z. 2012. Teaching practicum: Student teachers' perspectives. International Conference on Foreign Language Learning and Teaching Proceedings. *LITU*, 2(1).
- Kaldi, S. & Xafakos, E. 2017. Student teachers' school teaching practice: The relation amongst perceived self-competence, motivation and sources of support. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 67, 246-258.
- Kalimaposo, K. K. 2010. *The impact of curriculum innovations on pre-service primary teacher education in Zambia*. Doctor of Philosophy in Sociology of Education. The University of Zambia.
- Kaptelinin, V., Kuutti, K. & Bannon, L. 2005. *Activity theory: Basic concepts and applications*. A summary of a tutorial given at the East West HCI 95 Conference. [link.springer.com/ chapter/10.1007/3-540-60614-9_](http://link.springer.com/chapter/10.1007/3-540-60614-9_). Retrieved on 1 December 2017.
- Kaptelinin, V. & Nardi, B.A. 2012. *Activity theory in HCI: Fundamentals and Reflections*. Synthesis lectures on Human-Centred Informatics. A publication in the Morgan and Claypool Publishers series. [https://the-eye.eu/public/concen.org /Nonfiction.EBook.Pack.Oct.2015](https://the-eye.eu/public/concen.org/Nonfiction.EBook.Pack.Oct.2015). Retrieved on 17 December 2017.
- Kaptelinin, V. & Nardi, B. 2006. *Activity in a nutshell*. In *Acting with technology: Activity Theory and Interaction Design*. London: The MIT Press.
- Keengwe, J. & Kang, J. 2013. A triangular prism model: Using activity theory to examine online learning communities. *Educational Information Technology*, 18(1), 85-93.
- Kiggundu, E. & Nayimuli, S. 2009. Teaching practice: a make or break phase for student teachers. *South African Journal of Education*, 29(3), 345-358.

- Koc, C. 2011. The views of prospective class teachers about peer assessment in teaching practice. *Kuram Ve Uygulamada Egitim Bilimleri*, 11(4), 1979-1989.
- Komba, S. & Kira, E. 2013. The effectiveness of teaching practice in improving student teachers' teaching skills in Tanzania. *Journal of Education and Practice*, 4(1), 157-164.
- Kombo, D. K. & Tromp, D. L. A. 2009. *Proposal and thesis writing: An introduction*. Nairobi: Paulines Publications Africa.
- Koross, R. 2016. The student teachers' experiences during teaching practice and its impact on their perception of the teaching profession. *IRA International Journal of Education and Multidisciplinary Studies*, 5(2), 76-85.
- Korstjens, I. & Moser, A. 2018. Series: Practical guidance to qualitative research. Part 4: Trustworthiness and publishing. *European Journal of General Practice*, 24(1), 120-124. .
- Korthagen, F. 2010. How teacher education can make a difference. *Journal of Education for Teaching: International Research and Pedagogy*, 36(4), 407-423.
- Korthagen, F., Loughran, J. J. & Russell, T. 2006. Developing fundamental principles for teacher education programs and practices. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 22(8), 1020-1041.
- Krauss, S. E. 2005. Research paradigms and meaning making: A primer. *The Qualitative Report*, 10(4), 758-770.
- Labaree, D. F. 2008. An uneasy relationship : the history of teacher education in the university. The trouble with ed schools. In Cochran-Smith, M., Feiman Nemser, S. & McIntyre, J. (Eds), *Handbook of Research on Teacher Education: Enduring Issues in Changing Contexts*. Washington, DC: Association of Teacher Educators.
- Lawson, T., Çakmak, M., Gündüz, M. & Busher, H. 2015. Research on teaching practicum – a systematic review. *European Journal of Teacher Education*, 38(3), 392-407.

- Lee, C. D. 2003. Cultural Modeling: CHAT as a lens for understanding instructional discourse based on African American English discourse patterns. In Kosulin, A., Gindis, B., Ageyev, V. S. & Miller, S. M. (Eds.), *Vygotsky's Educational Theory in Cultural Context*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Lee, Y. 2011. More than just story-telling : Cultural – historical activity theory as an under-utilized methodology for educational change research. *Curriculum Studies*, 43(3), 403-424.
- Lefoka, J. P. 1994. *Teaching practicum for secondary student-teachers: A model for the national University of Lesotho (NUL)*. Master of Arts in the Faculty of Graduate Studies. The University of British Columbia.
- Leont'ev, A. 1978. Activity, consciousness and personality. Engelwood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Leshem, S. & Bar-Hama, R. 2008. Evaluating teaching practice. *ELT Journal*, 62(3), 257-265. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccm020>.
- Lim, P. C., Tay, Y. L. & Hedberg, J. 2011. Employing an activity-theoretical perspective to localise an educational innovation in an elementary school. *Journal of Educational Computing Research*, 44(3), 319-344.
- Lincoln, S. Y. & Guba, G. E. 1985. *Naturalistic inquiry*. London: Sage Publications.
- Lind, R. P. 2004. *The perceptions of teacher education in relation to the teaching practicum*. Doctor of Philosophy in Education. Massey University.
- Liston, D., Whitcomb, J. & Borko, H. 2006. Too little or too much: Teacher preparation and the first years of teaching. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 57(4), 351-358.
- Liu, P. 2012. Student teaching practice in two elementary teacher preparation programs. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 37(1), 14-34.
- Lodico, G. M., Spaulding, T. D. & Voegtle, H. K. 2006. *Methods in educational research: From theory to practice*. San Francisco: John Wiley & Sons.

- Luneta, K. 2011. *Initial Teacher Education in Southern Africa*. Saarbrücken: LAP LAMBERT.
- Manchishi, P. C. 2013. *Reforming Zambian pre-service teacher education for quality learning*. Lusaka: University of Zambia Press.
- Manchishi, P.C. 2004. *The growth of teacher education in Zambia since independence. the African Symposium*, 4(4)- An on-line publication of the African Educational Research Network - Albany State University.
- Manchishi, P. C. 2000. The role of teaching practice in the preparation of teachers. In Msango, H., Mumba, C. E. & Sikwibele, A. (Eds), *Philosophy of Education*. (pp.225-236). Lusaka: University of Zambia Press.
- Manchishi, P. C. & Mwanza, S. D. 2013. The University of Zambia school teaching experience: Is it effective? *Excellence in Higher Education*, 4(2), 61-77.
- Mannathoko, M. C. 2013. Does teaching practice effectively prepare student teachers to teach creative and performing arts? The Case of Botswana. *International Journal of Higher Education*, 2(2), 115-121.
- Manyasi, N. 2014. Cognition of the role of cooperating teachers during the practicum in Kenya : Teachers of English perspective. *Educational Researcher*, 5(2), 52-57.
- Maphosa, R. & Ndamba, G. T. 2012. Supervision and assessment of student teachers: A journey of discovery for mentors in Bulawayo, Zimbabwe. *Journal of Emerging Trends in Educational Research and Policy Studies (JETERAPS)*, 3(1), 76-82.
- Marais, P. & Meier, C. 2004. Hear our voices: Student teachers' experiences during practical teaching. *Africa Education Review*, 1(2), 220-233.
- Martin, D. & Peim, N. 2009. Critical perspectives on activity theory. *Educational Review*, 61(2), 131-138.

- Martinez, K. 2008. Academic induction for teacher educators. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education*, 36(1), 35-51.
- Masaiti, G. & Manchishi, P. C. 2011. The University of Zambia pre-service teacher education programme: Is it responsive to schools and communities' aspirations ? *European Journal of Educational Studies*, 3(2), 311-324.
- Mashava, R. & Chingombe, A. 2013. Teaching practice and the quality dilemma: lessons from experiences of student teachers in Masvingo Province. *Africa Education Review*, 10(Sup1), S134–S148. Retrieved from <http://ezproxy.lib.cam.ac.uk:2048/login?url=http://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&ab=eric&AN=EJ1107776&site> on 16 April 2016.
- Mason, K. O. 2013. Teacher involvement in pre-service teacher education. *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice*, 19(5), 559-574.
- Mattsson, M., Eilertsen, T. V. & Rorrison, D. 2011. What is practice in teacher education? In Mattsson, M., Eilertsen, T. V. & Rorrison, D. (Eds.), *A practicum turn in teacher education. Vol.6*, 1-18. Rotterdam: Sense Publishers.
- Maykut, P. & Morehouse, R. 2005. *Beginning qualitative research: A philosophic and practical guide*. London: The Falmer Press.
- Maykut, P. & Morehouse, R. 1994. *Beginning qualitative research: A philosophic and practical guide*. London: Falmer Press.
- McBee, R. H. 1998. Readyng teachers for real classrooms. *Educational Leadership*, 56-58. Retrieved from <http://search.proquest.com/docview/62553360?accountid=14511> on 7 March 2017.
- McDonald, L.G. 2014. Visiting lecturers: Perceptions of their role in supervising student teachers on practicum. *Journal of Education and Training*, 1(2), 210-222.
- McLoughlin, A. S. & Maslak, M. A. 2003. Prospective teachers' perceptions of development during fieldwork: Tutoring as a vehicle for professional growth. *Teacher Educator*, 38(4), 267-284.

- McNamara, D. 1995. The influence of student teachers' tutors and mentors upon their classroom practice: An exploratory study. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 11(1), 51-61.
- McNicholl, J. & Blake, A. 2013. Transforming teacher education: An activity theory analysis. *Journal of Education for Teaching: International Research and Pedagogy*, 39(3), 281-300.
- Mears, L. C. 2009. *Interviewing for education and social science research: The gateway approach*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Meegan, S., Dunning, C., Belton, S., & Woods, C. 2013. Teaching practice: University supervisors' experiences and perceptions of a cooperating physical education teacher education programme. *European Physical Education Review*, 19 (2), 199-214.
- Meijer, C. P., De Graaf, G. & Meirink, J. 2011. Key experiences in student teacher development. *Teachers and Teaching*, 17(1), 115-129.
- Merriam, B. S. 2009. *Qualitative research: A guide to design and implementation*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Merriam, B. S. & Tisdell, J. E. 2016. *Qualitative research: A guide to design and implementation*. 4th edition. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Meyer, E. & Lees, A. 2013. Learning to Collaborate: An application of activity theory to interprofessional learning across children's services. *Social Work Education*, 32(5), 662-684.
- Ministry of Education. 2007. *Education sector: National implementation framework, 2008- 2010*. Lusaka: Ministry of Education.
- Ministry of Education. 1996. *Educating our future: National policy on education*. Lusaka: Zambia Publishing House.
- Ministry of Education. 1992. *Focus on Learning: Strategies for the development of school education in Zambia*. Lusaka: Ministry of Education.

- Ministry of Education. 1977. *Educational reforms: Proposals and recommendations*. Lusaka: Government Printer.
- Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education (MoESVTEE). 2012. *The Zambia Education Curriculum Framework (ZECF)*. Lusaka: Curriculum Development Centre.
- Ministry of Finance. 2014. *Revised sixth national development plan 2013-2016*. Vol. 1. Lusaka: National Planning Department, Ministry of Finance.
- Mitchell, D. M. 2014. Evolving practice: A relational framework for developing understandings of university teaching practice. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 39 (10), 29-46.
- Mokoena, S. 2017. Student teachers' experiences of teaching practice at open and distance learning institution in South Africa. *Turkish Online Journal of Distance Education*, 18(2), 122-133.
- Montecinos, C., Walker, H. & Maldonado, F. 2015. School administrators and university practicum supervisors as boundary brokers for initial teacher education in Chile. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 49, 1-10.
- Moore, R. 2003. Re-examining the field experiences of preservice teachers. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 54(1), 31-42.
- Morris, J. R. 1974. The effects of the university supervisor on the performance and adjustment of student teachers. *The Journal of Educational Research*, 67(8), 358-362.
- Moyo, A. J. 1980. *An investigation into the teaching practice component of pre-service primary education in Zambia*. Master's dissertation in education. University of Zambia.
- Mpofu, C. L. 2007. *Perception of classroom supervision by secondary school teachers in the Harare region*. Tshwane University of Technology.

- Mpolomoka, L.D., Muyangana, A., Banda, S., Dube, M., Mabenga, M., Kangwa, K. & Muyoba, L. 2016. Teaching experience of student teachers in ODL tertiary institutions in Zambia. (Special issue). 48-55.
- Mudavanhu, Y. 2016. Teacher educators' views of student learning and experiences offered to support learning. *Journal of Education and Training Studies*, 4(9), 209-221.
- Mudavanhu, Y. 2014. *The contribution of theory and practice to the professional development of students learning to become secondary teachers in Zimbabwe*. Doctor of Philosophy in Education. The University of Exeter.
- Mulkeen, A. 2010. *Teacher in Anglophone Africa: Issues in teacher supply, training, and management*. Washington DC: The World Bank.
- Murphy, E. & Rodriguez-Manzanares, M. 2008. Using activity theory and its principle of contradictions to guide research in educational technology. *Australasian Journal of Educational Technology*, 24(4). Retrieved from/ citations?view_op=view_citation &continue=/scholar? on 5 March 2017.
- Murphy, E. & Rodriguez-Manzanares, M. A. 2007. An activity theory perspective on e-teaching in a virtual high school classroom. In *Proceedings of the 10th IASTED International conference computers and advanced technology in education* from 8-10. <https://www.iasted.org/conferences/pastinfo>. Retrieved on 29 November 2016.
- Murray, S., Nuttall, J. & Mitchell, J. 2007. Research into teacher education in Australia: A survey of the literature 1995-2004. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 24(2008), 225-239.
- Musonda, L. W. 1999. Teacher education reform in Zambia: Is it a case of a square peg in a round hole? *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 15(2), 157-168.

- Mtika, P. D. G. 2008. *Teaching practice as a component of teacher education in Malawi: An activity theory perspective*. Unpublished DEd research report. University of Nottingham. <http://search.proquest.com/docview/1683607764?accountid=10673> Retrieved on April 2015.
- Muyengwa, B. & Bukaliya, R. 2015. Teaching practice assessment: Are we reading from the same script? A Case of the Department of Teacher Development, Zimbabwe Open University. *International Journal of Research in Humanities and Social Studies*, 2(2), 53-58.
- Mwalongo, I. A. 2016. Using activity theory to understand student teacher perceptions of effective ways for promoting critical thinking through asynchronous discussion forums. In Gedera, J. P. & Williams, S. P. D. (Eds), *Activity Theory in Education: Research and Practice*. Rotterdam: Sense Publishers.
- Mwanakatwe, J. 2013. *The growth of education in Zambia since independence*. Lusaka: University of Zambia Press.
- Mwanakatwe, J. 1968. *The growth of education in Zambia since independence*. Lusaka: OUP.
- Newville, M. N. 2011. *Strengths and weaknesses of teacher preparation: Perspectives of first year teachers from traditional, field-based and alternative certification programs*. Doctor of Education. Texas A & M University - Commerce.
- Nguyen, C. P. H. 2015. EFL teaching practicums in Vietnam: The vexed partnership between universities and schools. *Electronic Journal of Foreign Language Teaching*, 12(2), 169-182.
- Norum, E. K. 2008. Artifact analysis. In Given, M. (Ed.). *The sage encyclopedia of qualitative research methods*. Los Angeles: Sage Publications.

- Nowell, S. L., Norris, M. J., White, E. D. & Moules, J. N. 2017. Thematic analysis: Striving to meet the trustworthiness criteria. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 16(1), 1-13.
- Núñez, I. 2009. Activity theory and the utilisation of the activity system according to the mathematics educational community. Critical review. *Educate* (Special issue), 7-20.
- Nussbaumer, D. 2012. An overview of cultural historical activity theory (CHAT) use in classroom research 2000 to 2009. *Educational Review*, 64(1), 37-55.
- Nuttall, J., Brennan, M., Zipin, L., Tuinamuana, K. & Cameron, L. 2013. Lost in production: The erasure of the teacher educator in Australian university job advertisements. *Journal of Education for Teaching*, 39(3), 329-343.
- O'Brian, M., Stoner, J., Appel, K. & House, J. J. 2007. The first field experience: Perspectives of pre-service and cooperating teachers. *The Journal of the Teacher Education Division of the Council for Exceptional Children*, 30(4), 264-275.
- Ogonor, B. O. & Badmus, M. M. 2006. Reflective teaching practice among student teachers: The case in a tertiary institution in Nigeria. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 31(2), 1-11.
- O'Leary, Z. 2010. *The essential guide to doing your research project*. London: Sage Publications.
- Oluwatayo, J. A. & Adebule, S. O. 2012. Assessment of teaching performance of student teachers on teaching practice. *International Education Studies*, 5(5), 109-115.
- Ong'ondo, O. C. 2009. *Pedagogical practice and support of English Language student teachers during the practicum in Kenya*. Doctor of Philosophy. The University of Leeds. Retrieved from <https://core.ac.uk/download/pdf/1146144.pdf> on 14 March 2015.

- Ong'ondo, O. C. & Borg, S. 2011. 'We teach plastic lessons to please them': The influence of supervision on the practice of English language student teachers in Kenya. *Language Teaching Research*, 15(4), 509-528.
- Ong'ondo, O. C. & Jwan, J. O. 2009. Research on student teacher learning, collaboration and supervision during the practicum: A literature review. *Educational Research and Review*, 4(11), 515-524. Retrieved from <http://www.academicjournals.org/err> on 17 April 2017.
- Otaala, J., Maani, J. S. & Bakaira, G. G. 2013. Effectiveness of university teacher education curriculum on the secondary school teacher performance in Uganda: The case of Kyambogo University. *Journal of International Cooperation in Education*, 15(3), 95-112.
- Owusu, A. A. & Brown, M. 2014. Teaching practice supervision as quality assurance tool in teacher preparation: Views of trainee teachers about supervisors in University of Cape Coast. *International Journal of Research in Humanities, Arts and Literature*, 2(5), 25-35.
- Patton, Q. M. 2002. *Qualitative research and evaluation methods*. 3rd edition. New Delhi: Sage Publications.
- Paulsen, H. T., Smalley, W. S. & Retallick, S. M. 2016. Student teacher activities: Are they relevant? The university supervisor's perspective. *Journal of Agricultural Education*, 57(3), 33-54.
- Perraton, H. 2010. *Teacher Education: The Role of open and distance learning*. Commonwealth of Learning. Vol. 42. Vancouver: Commonwealth of Learning. Retrieved from <http://hdl.handle.net/11599/290> on 10 October 2016.
- Ping, L. & Chunxia, Q. 2006. Examining teacher preparation in P.R. China and the USA: Preliminary comparative study. *International Education*, 35(2), 5-26.
- Plakitsi, K. 2013. Activity theory in formal and informal science education. In Plakitsi, K. (Ed.), *Activity theory in formal and informal science education*. Rotterdam: Sense Publishers.

- Portnov-Neeman, Y. & Barak, M. 2013. Exploring students' perceptions about learning in school: An activity theory based study. *Journal of Education and Learning*, 2(3), 9-25.
- Postholm, M. B. 2015. Methodologies in cultural–historical activity theory: The example of school-based development. *Educational Research*, 57(1), 43-58.
- Poulou, M. 2007. Student-teachers' concerns about teaching practice. *European Journal of Teacher Education*, 30(1), 91-110.
- Ramanaidu, R. R., Wellington, E., Chew, L. Z. & Hassan, N. R. N. 2014. Pre-service music teachers' concerns before a practicum stint. *International Education Studies*, 7(8), 35-43.
- Razak, A. N., Jalil, A. H., Krauss, E. & Ahmad, A. N. 2018. Successful implementation of information and communication technology integration in Malaysian public schools: An activity systems analysis approach. *Studies in Educational Evaluation*, 58(2018), 17-29.
- Robinson, M. 2016. Professional practice schools as a form of school-university partnership in teacher education: Towards a social justice agenda. *Education as Change*, 20(2), 11-26.
- Rodgers, A. & Keil, V. L. 2007. Restructuring a traditional student teacher supervision model: Fostering enhanced professional development and mentoring within a professional development school context. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 23(1), 63-80.
- Roofe, G. C. & Cook, G. L. 2017. Co-operating teachers, school placement and the implications for quality. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 42(6), 35-50.
- Rosemary, N., Ngwarai, R. & Ngara, R. 2013. Teaching practice supervision and assessment as a quality assurance tool in teacher training: Perceptions of prospective teachers at Masvingo Teacher Training College. *European Social Sciences Research Journal*, 1(1), 126-135.

- Rossman, B. G. & Rallis, F. S. 2012. *Learning in the field: An introduction to qualitative research*. Los Angeles: Sage Publications.
- Roth, W-M. 2004. Activity theory and education: An introduction. *Mind, Culture, and Activity*, 11(1), 1-8.
- Roth, W-M. & Lee, Y-J. 2007. "Vygotsky's neglected legacy": Cultural-historical activity theory. *Review of Educational Research*, 77(2), 186-232.
- Roth, W-M. & Tobin, K. 2002. Re-designing an "urban" teacher education program: An activity theory perspective. *Mind, Culture, and Activity*, 9(2), 108-131.
- Roth, W-M. & Tobin, K. 2001. The implications of co-teaching/co-generative dialogue for teacher evaluation: Learning from multiple perspectives of everyday practice. *Journal of Personnel Evaluation in Education*, 15(1), 7-29.
- Saldaña, J. 2011. *Fundamentals of qualitative research*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Saldaña, J. 2009. *The coding manual for qualitative researchers*. 3rd edition. Los Angeles, CA: Sage Publications.
- Sam, C. 2012. Activity theory and qualitative research in digital domains. *Theory into Practice*, (51), 83-90.
- Samuel, N. 2009. Beyond the Garden of Eden. *South African Journal of Higher Education*, 23 (4), 739-759.
- Sandhya, G. & Mahapatra, K. S. 2018. Thematic analysis to assess Indian consumers purchase intention for organic apparel. *The Qualitative Report*, 23(8), 1962-1982.
- Sandelowski, M. 2004. Qualitative research. In Lewis-Beck, M., Bryman, A. & Liao, T. (Eds.), *The Sage Encyclopedia of Social Science Research Methods*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

- Sannino, A., Daniels, H. & Gutiérrez, K. D. 2009. Activity theory between historical engagement and future-making practice. In Sannino, A., Daniels, H. & Gutiérrez, K. D. (Eds.), *Learning and Expanding with Activity Theory*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Sannino, A. & Nocon, H. 2008. Introduction: Activity theory and school innovation. *Journal of Educational Change*, 9(4), 325-328.
- Saracho, N. O. (Ed.). 2015. *Handbook of research methods in early childhood education: Review of research methodologies*. Charlotte: Information Age Publishing Inc.
- School of Education. 2013. *History of the school of education*. Retrieved from education.unza.zm/index.php/component/content/article/41-about-the-school/235 on 21 August 2018.
- School of Education. 2010. Annual report for 2007. Lusaka: University of Zambia Press.
- Scott, A. 2013. Teaching Practice at the University of Namibia: Quo Vadis? *Africa Education Review*, 10(Sup1), S149–S158.
- Sedumedi, T. D. T. & Mundalamo, F. J. 2012. Understanding field assessment of pre-service teachers on school practicum. *Africa Education Review*, 9 (Sup1): S73-S90).
- Sezen-Barrie, A., Tran, M. D., McDonald, S. P. & Kelly, G. J. 2014. A cultural historical activity theory perspective to understand pre-service science teachers' reflections on and tensions during a microteaching experience. *Cultural Studies of Science Education*, 9(3), 675-697.
- Silo, N. 2013. Dialogue-missing in action competence: A cultural historical activity theory approach in a Botswana school. *The Journal of Environmental Education*, 44(3), 159-179.
- Silverman, D. & Marvasti, A. 2008. *Doing qualitative research: A comprehensive guide*. New Delhi: Sage Publications.

- Simuyaba, E., Banda, D., Mweemba, L. & Muleya, G. 2015. Theory against practice: Training of teachers in a vacuum. *Journal of Education and Social Policy*, 2(5), 88-96.
- Shagrir, L. 2013. Teacher educators and the practical component in teacher education. *Journal of Education and Practice*, 4(27), 172-185.
- Sharon, S. N. G. & Esther, Y. M. C. 2012. School-university partnership: challenges and visions in the new decade. *Global Studies of Childhood*, 2(1), 38-56.
- Shenton, K. A. 2004. Strategies for ensuring trustworthiness in qualitative research projects. *Education for Information*, 22(2), 63-75.
- Smedley, L. 2001. Impediments to partnership: A literature review of school-university links. *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice*, 7(2), 189-209.
- Smith, K. & Lev-Ari, L. 2005. The place of the practicum in pre-service teacher education: The voice of the students. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education*, 33(3), 289-302.
- Snape, D. & Spencer, L. 2003. Foundations of qualitative research. In Richie, J. & Lewis, J. (Eds.), *Qualitative research practice: A guide for social science students and researchers*. California: Sage Publications.
- Sohn, K. B., Thomas, P. S., Greenberg, H. K. & Pollio, R. H. 2017. Hearing the voices of students and teachers: A phenomenological approach to educational research. *Qualitative Research in Education*, 6(2), 121-148.
- Solomon, Y., Croft, T., Duah, F. & Lawson, D. 2014. Reshaping understandings of teaching-learning relationships in undergraduate mathematics: An activity theory analysis of the role and impact of student internships. *Learning, Culture and Social Interaction*, 3(4), 323-333.
- Song, B. & Kim, T-Y. 2016. Teacher (de)motivation from an activity theory perspective: Cases of two experienced EFL teachers in South Korea. *System*, 57(2016), 134-145.

- Sorensen, P. 2014. Collaboration, dialogue and expansive learning: The use of paired and multiple placements in the school practicum. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 44(2014), 128-137.
- Southgate, E., Reynolds, R. & Howley, P. 2013. Professional experience as a wicked problem in initial teacher education. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 31(2013), 13-22.
- Spillane, J. P., Halverson, R. & Diamond, J. B. 2001. Investigating school leadership practice: A distributed perspective. *Educational Researcher*, 30(3), 23-28.
- Stupart, V. Y. 2009. *A descriptive exploration of practicum supervision in Jamaica*. Doctor of Philosophy Dissertation. Regent University. <http://www.proquest.com/en-US/products/dissertations/individuals.shtml>. Retrieved from on 11 July 2016.
- Sulistiyo, U., Mukminin, A., Abdurrahman, K. & Haryanto, E. 2017. Learning to teach: A case study of student teachers' practicum and policy recommendations. *The Qualitative Report*, 22(3), 712-731.
- Swabey, K., Castleton, G. & Penney, D. 2010. Meeting the standards? Exploring preparedness for teaching. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 35(8), 29-46.
- Tameh, V. 2011. Teaching practice evaluation in Cameroon. In Nsamenang, A. B. & Tchombe, M. S. T. (Eds), *Handbook of African Educational theories and Practices: A generative teacher education curriculum*. Bamenda: Human Development Resource Centre.
- Tang, S. Y. F. 2003. Challenge and support: The dynamics of student teachers' professional learning in the field experience. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 19(5), 483-498.
- Tannehill, D. & Goc-Karp, G. 1992. The student teaching practicum: Placement trends and issues. *Physical Educator*, 49(1), 39-48.

- Taylor, J. S., Bodgan, R. & De Vault, L. M. 2016. *Introduction to qualitative research methods: A guidebook and resource*. 4th edition. New Jersey: John Wiley & Sons.
- Taylor, N. 2014. *Are the universities producing the teachers we need?* 24-36. ISTE International Conference on Mathematics, Science and Technology Education. Retrieved on 21 November 2018 from uir.unisa.ac.za/bitstream/handle/10500/2291/nickTaylor.pdf
- Thanh-Pham, T. H. & Renshaw, P. 2015. Formative assessment in Confucian heritage culture classrooms: Activity theory analysis of tensions, contradictions and hybrid practices. *Assessment and Evaluation in Higher Education*, 40(1), 49-59.
- The Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership. 2013. *Early teacher development – Trends in initial teacher education*. A background paper prepared by the Australian Institute for teaching Leadership (AITSL) for the Asia Society's Global Cities Education Network. Education Services Australia. Retrieved from <http://www.aitsl.ed.ac> on 20 January 2017.
- Thomas, G. 2013. *How to do your research project*. 2nd edition. London: Sage Publications.
- Tobin, G. A. & Begley, C. M. 2004. Methodological rigour within a qualitative framework. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 48(4), 388-396. Retrieved from DOI:10.1111/j.1365-2648.2004.03207.x on 16 April 2016.
- Torrez, C. A. F. & Krebs, M. M. 2012. Expert Voices: What cooperating teachers and teacher candidates say about quality student teaching placements and experiences. *Action in Teacher Education*, 34(5-6), 485-499.
- Tracy, J. S. 2013. *Qualitative research methods: Collecting evidence, crafting analysis, communicating impact*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

- Tuimur, R., Role, E. & Makewa, L. N. 2012. Evaluation of student teachers grouped according to teaching subjects: Students' perception. *International Journal of Education*, 4(4), 232-247.
- Tuli, F. & File, G. 2009. Practicum experience in teacher education. *Ethiopian Journal of Education and Science*, 5(1), 107-116.
- Tuluce, S. H. & Cecen, S. 2016. Scrutinizing practicum for a more powerful teacher education: A longitudinal study with pre-service teachers. *Educational Sciences: Theory and Practice*, 16(1), 127-151.
- Turner, D. R. 2011. *The Teaching School Model as a means for addressing the knowing-doing gap*. Doctor of Education. Business, Informatics and Education. Central Queensland University.
- Ulvik, M. & Smith, K. 2011. What characterises a good practicum in teacher education? *Education Inquiry*, 2(3), 517-536.
- Vaismoradi, M., Jones, J., Turunen, H. & Snelgrove, S. 2016. Theme development in qualitative content analysis and thematic analysis. *Journal of Nursing Education and Practice*, 6(5), 100-110.
- Valencia, S. W., Martin, S. D., Place, N. A. & Grossman, P. 2009. Complex interactions in student teaching: Lost opportunities for learning. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 60(3), 304-322.
- Valerio, H. W., Johnson, C. D., Brophy, S. T., Bond, W. J., Gault, M. B., Marshall, D. H. & Abril, C. 2012. Exploring views from university faculty and cooperating teachers on general music teacher preparation. *Visions of Research in Music Education*, 22. Retrieved from [http:// www. rider.edu/~vrme](http://www.rider.edu/~vrme) on 20 June 2018.
- Vanderstoep, W. S. & Johnston, D. D. 2009. *Research methods for everyday life: Blending qualitative and quantitative approaches*. San Francisco: John Wiley and Sons.


- Wainman, K. E. 2011. *The associate teacher in the preservice practicum*. Doctor of Education. Department of Curriculum, teaching and Learning, Ontario Institute for the Studies in Education of the University of Toronto. Retrieved from [https://tspace.library.utoronto.ca/bitstream.wainman-katherine-E-201](https://tspace.library.utoronto.ca/bitstream/wainman-katherine-E-201) on 20 July 2016.
- Wambugu, P., Barmao, A. & Ngéno, J. 2013. Student teachers' perceptions of teaching practice assessment in Egerton University, Kenya. *Educational Journal*, 2(4), 169-175.
- Wang, J. & Odell, S. J. 2002. Mentored learning to teach according to standards-based reform: A critical review. *Review of Educational Research*, 72(3), 481-546.
- Wasley, D. 2002. *Potential of the practicum in teacher education: Roles, communication and professional development*. Doctor of Philosophy, Division of Education, Arts and Social Sciences, University of South Australia. http://researchoutput.unisa.edu.au/1959.8/8_1569. Retrieved on 18th July 2018.
- Westberry, N. 2009. *An activity theory analysis of social epistemologies within tertiary level e-learning environments*. PhD thesis. University of Waikato. Hamilton, New Zealand.
- White, S., Bloomfield, D. & Cornu, L. R. 2010. Professional experience in new times: Issues and responses to a changing education landscape. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education*, 38(3), 181-193.
- Wilson, E. 2004. Using activity theory as a lens to analyse interaction in a university-school initial teacher education and training partnership, *Educational Action Research*, 12(4), 587-612.
- Wilson, V. 2014. Examining teacher education through cultural historical activity theory. *Tean Journal*, 6(1), 20-29. Retrieved from <http://insight.cumbria.ac.uk/id/eprint/1508> on 10 January 2017.

- Worthy, J. 2005. "It didn't have to be so hard": The first years of teaching in an urban school. *International Journal of Qualitative Studies in Education*, 18(3), 379-398.
- Xiaojun, S. 2005. *What matters? The full-time graduate students' perceptions of teacher effectiveness*. Master of Education thesis. Brock University, St. Catharines, Ontario.
- Yamagata-Lynch, C. L. 2003. Using activity theory as an analytic lens for examining technology professional development in schools. *Mind, Culture and Activity*, 10(2), 100-119. Retrieved from <https://doi.org/10.1207/S1532-7884MCA1002-2> on 5 September 2017.
- Yamagata-Lynch, C. L. & Haudenschild, M. T. 2009. Using activity systems analysis to identify inner contradictions in teacher professional development. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 25(3), 507-517.
- Yan, C. & He, C. 2010. Transforming the existing model of teaching practicum: A study of Chinese EFL student teachers' perceptions. *Journal of Education for Teaching*, 36(1), 57-73.
- Yin, K. R. 2011. *Qualitative research from start to finish*. New York: The Guilford Press.
- Youngs, P. & Bird, T. 2010. Using embedded assessments to promote pedagogical reasoning among secondary teaching candidates. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 26(2), 185-198.
- Zanting, A., Verloop, N. & Vermunt, J. D. 2001. Student teachers eliciting mentors' practical knowledge and comparing it to their own beliefs. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 17(6), 725-740.
- Zeichner, K. 2012. The turn once again toward practice-based teacher education. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 63(5), 376-382.

- Zeichner, K. 2010. Rethinking the connections between campus courses and field experiences in college and university-based teacher education. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 61(1-2), 89-99.
- Zeichner, K. 2006. Reflections of a university-based teacher educator on the future of college and university-based teacher education. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 57(3), 326⁺.
- Zeichner, K. 1992. Rethinking the practicum in the professional development school partnership. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 43(4), 296-307.
- Zhang, Q., Cown, P., Hayes, J., Werry, S., Barnes, R., France, L. & TeHau-Grant, R. 2015. Scrutinizing the final judging role in assessment of practicum in early childhood initial teacher education in New Zealand. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 40(10), 147-166.
- Zulu, A. 2015. *Role parameters within the context of the practicum triad: teacher training perspectives from Namibia's Zambezi Region*. Doctoral thesis. University of South Africa.
- Zurita, G. & Nussbaum, M. 2007. A conceptual framework based on activity theory for mobile CSCL. *British Journal of Educational Technology, Online Early Articles*, 38(2), 211-235.

APPENDICES

Appendix A: Proof of registration



UNISA
university
of south africa

2035

A I R M A I L
LUCHEMBE M MR
UNIVERSITY OF ZAMBIA
SCHOOL OF EDUCATION
DEPARTMENT ADULT EDUCATION
P O BOX 32379
LUSAKA
ZAMBIA

STUDENT NUMBER : 53081102

ENQUIRIES TEL : 0861670411
FAX : (012)429 4150
eMAIL : mandd@unisa.ac.za

2020-05-26

Dear Student

I hereby confirm that you have been registered for the current academic year as follows:

Proposed Qualification: PHD (EDUCATION) (90019)

CODE	PAPER	S NAME OF STUDY UNIT	NQF crdts	LANG.	EXAM DATE	PROVISIONAL EXAMINATION CENTRE(PLACE)
@ TFPCU01	PHD - Education (Curriculum Studies)		**	E		
TFPCU01	PHD - Education (Curriculum Studies)		**	E		

Study units registered without formal exams:
@ Exam transferred from previous academic year

You are referred to the "MyRegistration" brochure regarding fees that are forfeited on cancellation of any study units.


Your attention is drawn to University rules and regulations (www.unisa.ac.za/register).
Please note the new requirements for reregistration and the number of credits per year which state that students registered for the first time from 2013, must complete 36 NQF credits in the first year of study, and thereafter must complete 48 NQF credits per year.
Students registered for the MBA, MBL and DBL degrees must visit the SBL's ESONline for study material and other important information.
Readmission rules for Honours: Note that in terms of the Unisa Admission Policy academic activity must be demonstrated to the satisfaction of the University during each year of study. If you fail to meet this requirement in the first year of study, you will be admitted to another year of study. After a second year of not demonstrating academic activity to the satisfaction of the University, you will not be re-admitted, except with the express approval of the Executive Dean of the College in which you are registered. Note too, that this study programme must be completed within three years. Non-compliance will result in your academic exclusion, and you will therefore not be allowed to re-register for a qualification at the same level on the National Qualifications Framework in the same College for a period of five years after such exclusion, after which you will have to re-apply for admission to any such qualification.
Readmission rules for M&D: Note that in terms of the Unisa Admission Policy, a candidate must complete a Master's qualification within three years. Under exceptional circumstances and on recommendation of the Executive Dean, a candidate may be allowed an extra (fourth) year to complete the qualification. For a Doctoral degree, a candidate must complete the study programme within six years. Under exceptional circumstances, and on recommendation by the Executive Dean, a candidate may be allowed an extra (seventh) year to complete the qualification.

CREDIT BALANCE ON STUDY ACCOUNT: 1158.00-

Yours faithfully,

Prof AP Phillips
Acting Registrar

0108 0 00 0



UNIVERSITEIT VAN SUID-AFRIKA
PRETORIA
UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA

University of South Africa
Preller Street, Muckleneuk Ridge, City of Tshwane
PO Box 392 UNISA 0003 South Africa
Telephone: +27 12 429 3111 Facsimile: +27 12 429 4150
www.unisa.ac.za

Appendix B: Ethics approval



UNISA COLLEGE OF EDUCATION ETHICS REVIEW COMMITTEE

Date: 2017/10/18

Dear Mr Luchembe

Decision: Ethics Approval from
2017/10/18 to 2020/10/18

Ref: **2017/10/18/53081102/06/MC**

Name: Mr M Luchembe

Student: 53081102

Researcher:

Name: Mr M Luchembe

Email: mluchembe@yahoo.com

Telephone: 260 211 292702

Supervisor:

Name: Dr H Kriek

Email: kriekhj@unisa.ac.za

Telephone: +27 12 429 6964

Title of research:

Efficacy of teaching practice in Zambia

Qualification: D Ed in Curriculum and Instruction Studies

Thank you for the application for research ethics clearance by the UNISA College of Education Ethics Review Committee for the above mentioned research. Ethics approval is granted for the period 2017/10/18 to 2020/10/18.

*The **low risk** application was reviewed by the Ethics Review Committee on 2017/10/18 in compliance with the UNISA Policy on Research Ethics and the Standard Operating Procedure on Research Ethics Risk Assessment.*

The proposed research may now commence with the provisions that:

1. The researcher(s) will ensure that the research project adheres to the values and



University of South Africa
Preller Street, Muckleneuk Ridge, City of Tshwane
PO Box 392 UNISA 0003 South Africa
Telephone: +27 12 429 3111 Facsimile: +27 12 429 4150
www.unisa.ac.za

principles expressed in the UNISA Policy on Research Ethics.

2. Any adverse circumstance arising in the undertaking of the research project that is relevant to the ethicality of the study should be communicated in writing to the UNISA College of Education Ethics Review Committee.
3. The researcher(s) will conduct the study according to the methods and procedures set out in the approved application.
4. Any changes that can affect the study-related risks for the research participants, particularly in terms of assurances made with regards to the protection of participants' privacy and the confidentiality of the data, should be reported to the Committee in writing.
5. The researcher will ensure that the research project adheres to any applicable national legislation, professional codes of conduct, institutional guidelines and scientific standards relevant to the specific field of study. Adherence to the following South African legislation is important, if applicable: Protection of Personal Information Act, no 4 of 2013; Children's act no 38 of 2005 and the National Health Act, no 61 of 2003.
6. Only de-identified research data may be used for secondary research purposes in future on condition that the research objectives are similar to those of the original research. Secondary use of identifiable human research data requires additional ethics clearance.
7. No field work activities may continue after the expiry date 2020/10/18. Submission of a completed research ethics progress report will constitute an application for renewal of Ethics Research Committee approval.

Note:

*The reference number **2017/10/18/53081102/06/MC** should be clearly indicated on all forms of communication with the intended research participants, as well as with the Committee.*

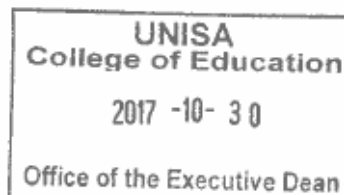
Kind regards,



Dr M Claassens
CHAIRPERSON: CEDU RERC
mcdtc@netactive.co.za



Prof V McKay
EXECUTIVE DEAN



Approved - decision template – updated 16 Feb 2017

University of South Africa
Preller Street, Muckleneuk Ridge, City of Tshwane
PO Box 392 UNISA 0003 South Africa
Telephone: +27 12 429 3111 Facsimile: +27 12 429 4150
www.unisa.ac.za

Appendix C: Request for permission to conduct research in schools

Title: Efficacy of teaching practice implemented by the University of Zambia

University of Zambia
School of Education
P.O. Box 32379
Lusaka

1 November 2017

The Permanent Secretary
Ministry of Education
P.O. Box 50093
Lusaka

Dear Sir,

RE: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CARRY OUT A STUDY IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

I am applying for permission to carry out a research study in secondary schools in Lusaka Province. I am a doctoral student in the College of Education at the University of South Africa (UNISA). Currently, I am a lecturer in the School of Education at the University of Zambia.

I am planning to conduct a qualitative study on the following topic: *The Efficacy of Teaching Practice implemented by the University of Zambia*. I am under the supervision of Dr H. Kriek and Prof. G. Ferreira in the Department of Educational Foundations and Curriculum and Instructional Studies at UNISA respectively.

The purpose of the study is to establish the efficacy of teaching practice conducted by the University of Zambia for the preparation of secondary school teachers in Zambia. The study is important because it will not only assist in the production of guidelines pertaining to the conduct of teaching practice but contribute to the growth of knowledge and help to inform practice in the subject area too.

The target population will comprise 8 teacher educators and 40 student teachers at the University of Zambia and 10 secondary school teachers (supervising teachers) in Lusaka Province. Purposive sampling techniques will be used to identify and select study participants based on their experiences of teaching practice.

I intend to conduct focus group interviews with student teachers while teacher educators and supervising teachers will be subjected to a face-to-face semi-structured interview. Note taking and audio recording will be used to record the interviews. Further, data from teacher educators' lesson evaluation forms will be collected.

Ethical considerations will be upheld in this study. This will include informed consent, privacy, confidentiality and anonymity. Participants will voluntarily participate in the study and will be free to withdraw at any time without penalty. In addition, the study will not pose any risk of harm or discomfort to the participants. Finally, the study data will be used only for academic purposes.

Yours faithfully

M. Luchembe

Appendix D: Permission to conduct research in schools

All communications should be addressed to:
The Permanent Secretary, Ministry of General Education
Note to any individual by name

Telephone: 250855/251315/251283
251293/211318/251291
251003/251319



REPUBLIC OF ZAMBIA

MINISTRY OF GENERAL EDUCATION

In Reply Please Quote

No.....

P.O BOX 50093
LUSAKA

10th November, 2017

Mr. M. Luchembe
University of Zambia
School of Education
P O Box 32379
LUSAKA

RE: PERMISSION TO CARRY OUT A STUDY IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

=====

I wish to acknowledge receipt of your letter in which you requested to carry out a research study in Secondary Schools in Lusaka.

Authority has been granted for you to carry out your research. Your letter, however, did not indicate the period when you intend to conduct the research interviews. It is important to bear in mind that our schools are currently engaged with the national examinations. The interviews will be better done when the teachers are not involved in teaching or administering examinations.

Louis Mwansa
Acting Permanent Secretary
MINISTRY OF GENERAL EDUCATION

Appendix E: Request for permission to conduct research at the University of Zambia

Title: The Efficacy of Teaching Practice Implemented by the University of Zambia

University of Zambia
School of Education
P.O. Box 32379
Lusaka

1 November 2017

The Registrar
University of Zambia
P.O. Box 32379
Lusaka

Dear Sir,

RE: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CARRY OUT A STUDY AT THE UNIVERSITY OF ZAMBIA

I am applying for permission to carry out a research study at the University of Zambia. I am a doctoral student in the College of Education at the University of South Africa (UNISA). Currently, I am a lecturer in the School of Education at the University of Zambia.

I am planning to conduct a qualitative study on the following topic: *The Efficacy of Teaching Practice implemented by the University of Zambia*. I am under the supervision of Dr H. Kriek and Prof. G. Ferreira in the Department of Educational Foundations and Curriculum and Instructional Studies at UNISA respectively.

The purpose of the study is to establish the efficacy of teaching practice conducted by the University of Zambia for the preparation of secondary school teachers in Zambia. The study is important because it will not only assist in the production of guidelines pertaining to the conduct of teaching practice but contribute to the growth of knowledge and help to inform practice in the subject area too.

The target population will comprise 8 teacher educators and 40 student teachers at the University of Zambia. Purposive sampling techniques will be used to identify and select study participants based on their experiences of teaching practice.

I intend to conduct individual face-to-face semi-structured interviews and focus group interviews with teacher educators and student teachers respectively. Note taking and audio recording will be used to record the interviews. Data from teacher educators' lesson evaluation forms will also be recorded.

Ethical considerations will be upheld in this study. This will include informed consent, privacy, confidentiality and anonymity. Participants will voluntarily participate in the study and will be free to withdraw at any time without penalty. In addition, the study will not pose any risk of harm or discomfort to the participants. Finally, the study data will be used only for academic purposes.

Yours faithfully

M. Luchembe

Appendix F: Permission to conduct research at the University of Zambia



THE UNIVERSITY OF ZAMBIA

Email: registrar@unza.zm
Tel/Fax +260 211 253952
Telex: ZA 44370

Registrar's Office
P.O. BOX 32379
Lusaka, Zambia

1st November, 2017

Mr. M. Luchembe
C/o School of Education
Department of Adult Education and Extension Studies
P.O. Box 32379
UNZA

Dear Mr. Luchembe,

RE: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

Reference is made to your letter dated 1st November, 2017 with regard to the matter captioned above.

This serves to inform you that your request to collect data from the University of Zambia, for your research work on **"The Efficacy of Teaching Practice in Zambia"** has been granted. This is to enable you complete your Doctoral Studies at the University of South Africa.

By copy of this letter, the Deputy Registrar (Academic Affairs) and other relevant officers are hereby notified of the approval.


Sitali Wamundila (Mr.)
REGISTRAR

c.c. Vice-Chancellor
Deputy Vice-Chancellor
Deputy Registrar (Academic Affairs)

Appendix G: Semi-structured Interview Schedule for Teacher Educators

(Efficacy of teaching practice implemented by the University of Zambia)

Background information

1.
 - a. Name of institution
 - b. Teacher training and experience
 - c. Teaching subjects
 - d. Gender

Meaning and objectives of teaching practice

2.
 - a. Please share with me your understanding of teaching practice.
 - b. According to you, what are the major objectives of teaching practice?

Preparatory activities for teaching practice

3.
 - a. Explain the activities that student teachers undertake in readiness for teaching practice.
 - b. How much time is allocated to each of these activities?
 - c. What arrangements does the University of Zambia make with the supervising teachers and the school administration for student teachers' teaching practice?
 - d. In your opinion, are these arrangements for teaching practice adequate? Explain.

Experiences of teaching practice

4.
 - a. For how long have you been involved in teaching practice supervision?
 - b. Have you ever had any specialised training in supervision of student teachers?
 - c. How long is teaching practice in secondary school? In your opinion is this period adequate?
 - d. How many times do student teachers do teaching practice before they graduate?

Supervision of teaching practice

5.
 - a. How many times do you supervise or monitor a student teacher on teaching practice?

- b. Do you offer advice or training to supervising teachers on how to supervise student teachers?
- c. What help do you give to student teachers during teaching practice?
- d. What help do you give to supervising teachers during teaching practice?

Evaluation of teaching practice

- 6.
 - a. How many times do you evaluate a student teacher's lessons?
 - b. What are the main areas of focus when you are evaluating student teachers?
 - c. Comment on readiness of student teachers to teach in terms of knowledge of subject matter and teaching methods.
 - d. How effective is the assessment tool for evaluating student teachers on teaching practice?
 - e. At what point do you review the conduct of teaching practice with supervising teachers and/or school administration?
 - f. Please share your views regarding the effectiveness of teaching practice implemented by the University of Zambia in schools.

Role of a supervising teacher in teaching practice

- 7.
 - a. What role does a supervising teacher play in teaching practice?
 - b. In which way(s) do you collaborate with the school administration and supervising teachers in the conduct of teaching practice?

Challenges of teaching practice conducted by the University of Zambia

- 8.
 - a. From your experience, what would you say are the major challenges of teaching practice conducted by the University of Zambia during:
 - i. training of student teachers
 - ii. implementation of teaching practice in secondary schools?

Suggestions to improve the conduct of teaching practice at the University of Zambia

- 9.
 - a. How can the conduct of teaching practice programme for the training of secondary school teachers by the University of Zambia be improved?
 - b. Is there any additional information about teaching practice implemented by the University of Zambia that you would like to share with me?

Thank you for taking part in this interview

Appendix H: Semi-structured Interview Schedule for Supervising Teachers (Efficacy of teaching practice implemented by the University of Zambia)

=====

Background information

1.
 - a. Name of School
 - b. Teacher training and experience
 - c. Teaching subjects
 - d. Gender

Meaning and objectives of teaching practice

2.
 - a. Please share with me your understanding of teaching practice.
 - b. According to you, what are the major objectives of teaching practice?

Preparatory activities for teaching practice

3.
 - a. Explain the activities that student teachers undertake in readiness for teaching practice.
 - b. How much time is allocated to each of these activities?
 - c. What arrangements does the University of Zambia make with you as supervising teacher and the school administration for student teachers' teaching practice?
 - d. In your opinion, are these arrangements for teaching practice adequate? Explain.

Experiences of teaching practice

4.
 - a. For how long have you been involved in teaching practice supervision?
 - b. Have you ever had any specialised training in supervision of student teachers?
 - c. How long is teaching practice in secondary school? In your opinion, is this period adequate?
 - d. Comment on the readiness of student teachers to teach in terms of knowledge of subject matter and teaching skills.

Supervision of teaching practice

5.
 - a. How many times do you observe a student teacher?
 - b. What are the main areas of focus during supervision of student teachers?

- c. Do teacher educators offer you advice or training on how to supervise student teachers?
- d. What kind of help do you get from teacher educators?

Evaluation of teaching practice

- 6.
 - a. How many times do you assess a student teacher's lessons?
 - b. How effective is the assessment tool for teaching practice?
 - c. At what point do you review the conduct of teaching practice with teacher educators?
 - d. Please share your views regarding effectiveness of teaching practice.

Role of a supervising teacher in teaching practice

- 7.
 - a. As a supervising teacher, what is your role in teaching practice?
 - b. In which way(s) do you collaborate with the University of Zambia in the conduct of teaching practice?

Challenges of teaching practice conducted by the University of Zambia

- 8.
 - a. From your experience, what would you say are the major challenges faced by the University of Zambia in implementing teaching practice in secondary schools?

Suggestions to improve the conduct of teaching practice at the University of Zambia

- 9.
 - a. How can the conduct of the teaching practice programme for the training of secondary school teachers by the University of Zambia be improved?
 - b. Is there any additional information you would like to share with me about the conduct of teaching practice by the University of Zambia?

Thank you for taking part in this interview

Appendix I: Focus Group Interview Questions for Student Teachers

(Efficacy of teaching practice implemented by the University of Zambia)

=====

Background information

1.
 - a. Schools where teaching practice was conducted
 - b. Pre-service or In-service
 - c. Teaching subjects
 - d. Gender distribution in the group

Meaning and objectives of teaching practice

2.
 - a. Please share with us your understanding of teaching practice?
 - b. According to you, what are the objectives of teaching practice?

Preparatory activities for teaching practice

3.
 - a. Explain how you were prepared for teaching practice (in terms of teaching methods, demonstration lessons, peer teaching).
 - b. How much time was allocated to each of these activities?
 - c. In your opinion, were these preparatory activities for teaching practice adequate?

Experiences of teaching practice

4.
 - a. How long was teaching practice? In your opinion was this period sufficient?
 - b. How many times do you do teaching practice before you graduate?
 - c. Briefly explain how you were initiated into class by the supervising teacher before you started teaching.
 - d. Comment on your readiness to teach in terms of knowledge of subject matter and teaching skills.

Supervision and evaluation of teaching practice

5.
 - a. Was your lesson assessed by the:
(i) teacher educator, and (ii) supervising teacher?
 - b. Did the teacher educator and supervising teacher discuss your lesson with you after you taught? Elaborate.
 - c. How many meetings did you have with your teacher educator and supervising teacher during your placement?

- d. What kind of help did you receive from teacher educators and supervising teachers during teaching practice?
- e. Do you think the University of Zambia collaborated with the school that hosted you for teaching practice in matters pertaining to teaching practice? Explain.
- f. Please share your views regarding the effectiveness of teaching practice conducted by the University of Zambia.

Challenges of teaching practice conducted by the University of Zambia

- 6.
 - a. From your experience, what would you say are the major challenges of teaching practice conducted by the University of Zambia during:
 - (i) training at the University of Zambia
 - (ii) teaching practice in secondary school

Suggestions to improve the conduct of teaching practice at the University of Zambia

- 7.
 - a. How can the conduct of the teaching practice programme for the training of secondary school teachers by the University of Zambia be improved?
 - b. Is there any additional information that you would like to share about the conduct of teaching practice at the University of Zambia?

Thank you for taking part in the interview

Appendix J: Teacher Educators' Lesson Evaluation Form

THE UNIVERSITY OF ZAMBIA
SCHOOL OF EDUCATION

LESSON EVALUATION FORM

SCHOOL (e.g. Munali High): Grade: SUBJECT:

STUDENT'S NAME: COMP. NO.:

TOPIC:

DATE: TIME: NAME OF SUPERVISOR:

CATEGORY		RATING						
NOTE: Not all categories will be applicable to every lesson		5	4	3	2	1	0	
A	OBJECTIVE(S)							
1	Clear, uniqueness, attainability in the time available							
2	Realistic in terms of the class and its previous knowledge							
B	INTRODUCTION							
3	Capturing pupils' attention							
4	Linked subject matter to existing and relevant previous knowledge							
C	LESSON DEVELOPMENT							
5	Sequence of instruction							
6	Use of practical activity							
7	Relevance and quality of examples							
8	Pace of the lesson							
9	Knowledge of subject matter							
10	Level and clarity of speech							
11	Pupils' participation in the lesson							
12	Variation of class activity/technique							
D	RESOURCES							
13	Use of the chalkboard							
14	Use of teaching aids							
E	QUESTIONING TECHNIQUES							
15	Distribution of questions to the class i.e. volunteers, non-volunteers, gender etc.							
16	Treatment of class questions							
17	Quality of questions							
F	INDIVIDUAL NEEDS							
18	Use of sign language/ Braille							
19	Skill knowledge in handling special education needs							
G	SUMMARY/CONCLUSION							
20	Summary of the main points of the lesson							
21	Linkage to the next lesson							
H	EVALUATION							
22	Allowing pupils verbalisation of concepts							
23	Class management							
24	Evidence of learning							
25	How would you rate the lesson as a whole							
I	PERSONALITY							
26	Appearance							
27	Teacher-pupil relationship							
TOTAL								

KEY TO UNDERSTANDING OF RATING

Rating	5	4	3	2	1	0
Meaning	Excellent	Very Good	Good	Satisfactory	Unsatisfactory	Absent

The categories are not equally weighted. Therefore, the total does not necessarily translate to a grade.

COMMENTS

GRADE:

Signature of supervisor:

N.B. This form should be completed in triplicate:
Original to the office of the STP Coordinator, School of Education, UNZA,
P.O. Box 32379. LUSAKA.

(Tel.: 294026). Copies to the student teacher and the supervisor.

Appendix K: Questions for Document Analysis

(Efficacy of teaching practice implemented by the University of Zambia)

- a. What is the final grade given to the student teacher after lesson observation by the teacher educator?
- b. What are the final comments on the student teacher's performance in the teaching practice lesson?
- c. Are answers in tandem with questions/statements raised in the semi-structured interview schedule namely:
 - i. Comment on student teacher readiness to do teaching practice in terms of knowledge of subject matter and teaching skills.
 - ii. In your opinion, how effective is teaching practice conducted by the University of Zambia?

Appendix L: Request for teacher educators to participate in individual semi-structured interview

Title: The Efficacy of Teaching Practice implemented by the University of Zambia

University of Zambia
School of Education
P.O. Box 32379
Lusaka

Date: July 2017

Dear _____

My name is **Musonda Luchembe** and I am doing research as a doctoral student under the supervision of Dr H. Kriek and Prof. G. Ferreira in the Department of Educational Foundations, and Curriculum and Instructional Studies respectively at the University of South Africa (UNISA). This letter is an invitation to consider participating in a study entitled ***Efficacy of Teaching Practice Implemented by the University of Zambia***.

The aim of this study is to investigate the efficacy of teaching practice conducted by the University of Zambia. The importance of teaching practice in teacher education is substantial and well documented. In this study I would like to have your views and opinions on this topic. This information can be used to improve the conduct of teaching practice in secondary schools.

I have purposively identified you as a possible participant because of your valuable experience and expertise related to my research topic. I would, therefore, like to provide you with more information about this project and what your involvement would entail if you agree to take part.

Your participation in this study is voluntary. It will involve an individual semi-structured interview of approximately 40 to 60 minutes at a location and time to be mutually agreed upon. You may withdraw from this study at any time without giving any reason. There are no known or anticipated risks to you as a participant in this

study. You will not be reimbursed or receive any incentives for participating in the research.

With your kind permission, the interview will be audio-recorded to facilitate collection of accurate information and later transcribed for analysis. Shortly after the transcription has been completed, I will send you a copy of the transcript to give you chance to confirm the accuracy of our conversation to add or clarify any points. All information you provide is considered confidential. Your name will not be recorded anywhere nor will anyone associate you with the answers you give. In addition, while a report of the study may be submitted for publication, individual participants will not be identifiable in such a report. However, with your permission, anonymous quotations may be used. On completion of the study and in consultation with my supervisor and the University (UNISA), a summary of the results will be made available to the study participants.

Data collected during the study in hard copy form will be stored by the researcher in a lockable drawer while electronic data will be stored on a password protected computer for 5 years.

Permission for the study has been given by the Department of Educational Foundations and the Ethics Committee of the College of Education at UNISA. If you would like to be informed of the final research findings, please contact me on +260955799540 or email mluchembe@yahoo.com. The findings will be accessible for ten years. If you have any questions regarding this study or would like additional information to assist you in reaching a decision about participating, please contact me at the University of Zambia or by e-mail at mluchembe@yahoo.com.

Should you have concerns about the way in which the research has been conducted, you may contact Dr H. Kriek on 012 429 6964 or e-mail Kriekhj@unisa.ac.za.

I look forward to speaking to you and thank you in advance for your assistance in this project. Finally, if you accept my invitation to participate in the study, I will request you to sign the consent form.

Researcher's name

Researcher's signature

Date

Appendix M: Request for supervising teachers to participate in individual semi-structured interview

Title: The Efficacy of Teaching Practice implemented by the University of Zambia

University of Zambia
School of Education
P.O. Box 32379
Lusaka

January 2017

Dear _____

My name is **Musonda Luchembe** and I am doing research as a doctoral student under the supervision of Dr H. Kriek and Prof. G. Ferreira in the Department of Educational Foundations, and Curriculum and Instructional Studies respectively at the University of South Africa (UNISA). This letter is an invitation to consider participating in a study entitled ***Efficacy of Teaching Practice Implemented by the University of Zambia.***

The aim of this study is to investigate the efficacy of teaching practice conducted by the University of Zambia. The importance of teaching practice in teacher education is substantial and well documented. In this study I would like to have your views and opinions on this topic. This information can be used to improve the conduct of teaching practice in secondary schools.

I have purposively identified you as a possible participant because of your valuable experience and expertise related to my research topic. I would, therefore, like to provide you with more information about this project and what your involvement would entail if you agree to take part.

Your participation in this study is voluntary. It will involve a semi-structured interview of approximately 40 to 60 minutes at a location and time to be mutually agreed upon. You may decline to answer any of the interview questions if you so wish. Furthermore, you may decide to withdraw from this study at any time without giving any reason. There are no known or anticipated risks to you as a participant in this

study. You will not be reimbursed or receive any incentives for participating in the research.

With your kind permission, the interview will be audio-recorded to facilitate collection of accurate information and later transcribed for analysis. Shortly after the transcription has been completed, I will send you a copy of the transcript to give you chance to confirm the accuracy of our conversation to add or to clarify any points. All information you provide is considered confidential. Your name will not be recorded anywhere nor will anyone identify you with the answers you give. While a report of the study may be submitted for publication, individual participants will not be identifiable in such a report. However, with your permission, anonymous quotations may be used. On completion of the study and in consultation with my supervisor and the University (UNISA), a summary of the results will be made available to the study participants.

Data collected during the study in hard copy form will be stored by the researcher in a lockable drawer while electronic data will be stored on a password protected computer for 5 years.

Permission for the study has been given by the Department of Educational Foundations and the Ethics Committee of the College of Education at UNISA. If you would like to be informed of the final research findings, please contact me on +260955799540 or email mluchembe@yahoo.com. The findings will be accessible for ten years. If you have any questions regarding this study or would like additional information to assist you in reaching a decision about participating, please contact me at the University of Zambia or by e-mail at mluchembe@yahoo.com.

Should you have concerns about the way in which the research has been conducted, you may contact Dr H. Kriek on 012 429 6964 or e-mail Kriekhj@unisa.ac.za.

I look forward to speaking to you and thank you in advance for your assistance in this project. Finally, if you accept my invitation to participate in the study, I will request you to sign the consent form.

Researcher's name

Researcher's signature

Date

Appendix N: Request for student teachers to participate in focus group interview

Title: The Efficacy of Teaching Practice implemented by the University of Zambia

University of Zambia
School of Education
P.O. Box 32379
Lusaka

Date: July 2017

Dear _____

My name is **Musonda Luchembe** and I am doing research as a doctoral student under the supervision of Dr H. Kriek and Prof. G. Ferreira in the Department of Educational Foundations, and Curriculum and Instructional Studies respectively at the University of South Africa (UNISA). This letter is an invitation to consider participating in a study entitled ***Efficacy of Teaching Practice Implemented by the University of Zambia.***

The aim of this study is to investigate the efficacy of teaching practice conducted by the University of Zambia. The importance of teaching practice in teacher education is substantial and well documented. In this study I would like to have your views and opinions on this topic. This information can be used to improve the conduct of teaching practice in secondary schools.

I have purposively identified you as a possible participant because of your valuable experience related to my research topic. I would, therefore, like to provide you with more information about this project and what your involvement would entail if you agree to take part.

Your participation in this study is voluntary. It will involve a focus group interview of approximately one and half hours at a location and time to be mutually agreed upon. You may withdraw from this study at any time without giving any reason. There are no known or anticipated risks to you as a participant in this study. You will not be reimbursed or receive any incentives for participating in the research.

With your kind permission, the focus group interview will be audio-recorded to facilitate collection of accurate information and later transcribed for analysis. Shortly after the transcription has been completed, I will send you a copy of the transcript to give you chance to confirm the accuracy of our conversation to add or clarify any points. All information you provide is considered confidential. Your name will not be recorded anywhere nor will anyone associate you with any answers you give. While a report of the study may be submitted for publication, individual participants will not be identifiable in such a report. However, with your permission, anonymous quotations may be used. On completion of the study and in consultation with my supervisor and the University (UNISA), a summary of the results will be made available to the participants.

Data collected during the study in hard copy form will be stored by the researcher in a lockable drawer while electronic data will be stored on a password protected computer for 5 years.

Permission for the study has been given by the Department of Educational Foundations and the Ethics Committee of the College of Education at UNISA. If you would like to be informed of the final research findings, please contact me on +260955799540 or email mluchembe@yahoo.com. The findings will be accessible for ten years. If you have any questions regarding this study or would like additional information to assist you in reaching a decision about participating, please contact me at the University of Zambia or by e-mail at mluchembe@yahoo.com.

Should you have concerns about the way in which the research has been conducted, you may contact Dr H. Kriek on 012 429 6964 or e-mail Kriekhj@unisa.ac.za.

I look forward to speaking to you and thank you in advance for your assistance in this project. Finally, if you accept my invitation to participate in the study, I will request you to sign the consent form.

-----	-----	-----
Researcher's name	Researcher's signature	Date

Appendix O: Consent form for teacher educators
INDIVIDUAL INTERVIEW

Research project: Efficacy of teaching practice implemented by the University of Zambia

I _____ (participant name), confirm that the person asking for my consent to take part in this research has told me about the nature, procedure, potential benefits and anticipated inconvenience of participation.

I have read and understood the study as explained in the request letter for my participation. In addition, I have had sufficient opportunity to ask questions.

I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw from the study at any time without penalty.

I agree to the recording of the individual interview.

I am aware that the findings of this study will be processed into a research report, journal and/or conference proceedings.

I understand that confidentiality will be maintained and that my name and any other information that I would allow to be identified will be removed before any data is published.

I have received a signed copy of the informed consent agreement. I freely and voluntarily give my consent to participate in this study.

Participant's name (please print): _____

Participant's signature

Date

I declare that I have fully explained the procedures involved in this study to the person(s) named above.

Researcher's name (please print) _____

Researcher's signature

Date

Contact details of the researcher

Musonda Luchembe
University of Zambia
School of Education
P.O. Box 32379
Lusaka

Mobile: +260955799540 or +260978799540. **E-mail:** mluchembe@yahoo.com

Appendix P: Consent form for supervising teachers
INDIVIDUAL INTERVIEW

Research project: Efficacy of teaching practice implemented by the University of Zambia

I _____ (participant name), confirm that the person asking my consent to take part in this research has told me about the nature, procedure, potential benefits and anticipated inconvenience of participation.

I have read and understood the study as explained in the request letter for my participation. In addition, I have had sufficient opportunity to ask questions.

I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time without penalty.

I agree to the recording of the individual interview.

I am aware that the findings of this study will be processed into a research report, journal and/or conference proceedings.

I understand that confidentiality will be maintained and that my name and any other information that I would allow to be identified will be removed before any data is published.

I have received a signed copy of the informed consent agreement. I freely and voluntarily give my consent to participate in this study.

Participant's name (please print): _____

Participant's signature

Date

I declare that I have fully explained the procedures involved in this study to the person(s) named above.

Researcher's name (please print) _____

Researcher's signature

Date

Contact details of the researcher

Musonda Luchembe
University of Zambia
School of Education
P.O. Box 32379
Lusaka

Mobile: +260955799540 or +260978799540 **E-mail:** mluchembe@yahoo.com

Appendix Q: Consent form for student teachers

FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEW

Research project: Efficacy of teaching practice implemented by the University of Zambia

I _____ (participant name), confirm that the person asking my consent to take part in this research has told me about the nature, procedure, potential benefits and anticipated inconvenience of participation.

I have read and understood the study as explained in the request letter for my participation. In addition, I have had sufficient opportunity to ask questions.

I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time without penalty.

I agree to the recording of the individual interview.

I am aware that the findings of this study will be processed into a research report, journal and/or conference proceedings.

I understand that confidentiality will be maintained and that my name and any other information that I would allow to be identified will be removed before any data is published.

I have received a signed copy of the informed consent agreement. I freely and voluntarily give my consent to participate in this study.

Participant's name (please print): _____

Participant's signature

Date

I declare that I have fully explained the procedures involved in this study to the person(s) named above.

Researcher's name (please print) _____

Researcher's signature

Date

Contact details of the researcher

Musonda Luchembe
University of Zambia
School of Education
P.O. Box 32379
Lusaka

Mobile: +260955799540 or +260978799540 **E-mail:** mluchembe@yahoo.com

Appendix R: A teacher educator's final comment on a lesson evaluation form (TEF8).

KEY TO UNDERSTANDING OF RATING

Rating	5	4	3	2	1	0
Meaning	Excellent	Very Good	Good	Satisfactory	Unsatisfactory	Absent

TEF8

TEF8

The categories are not equally weighted. Therefore, the total does not necessarily translate to a grade.

COMMENTS: The lesson was good.

GRADE: 77% A

Signature of supervisor:

N.B. This form should be completed in triplicate:
Original to the office of the STP Coordinator, School of Education, UNZA, P. O. Box 32379, LUSAKA
(Tel: 294026). Copies to the student teacher and the supervisor.

Appendix S: A teacher educator's final comment on a lesson evaluation form (TEF 18)

TEF18

KEY TO UNDERSTANDING OF RATING


Rating	5	4	3	2	1	0
Meaning	Excellent	Very Good	Good	Satisfactory	Unsatisfactory	Absent

The categories are not equally weighted. Therefore, the total does not necessarily translate to a grade.

COMMENTS:

- it was a good lesson. The teacher and pupil interaction was good and there was pupil participation. The lesson development was very good.
- The teacher however, needs to avoid talking to the board. There is need to maintain eye contact at all times during the lesson. The teacher also needs to vary the teaching-learning techniques so as to ensure good lesson delivery.
- Can definitely do better.

GRADE:

Signature of supervisor: 

N.B. This form should be completed in triplicate:
 Original to the office of the STP Coordinator, School of Education, UNZA, P. O. Box 32379, LUSAKA
 (Tel: 294026). Copies to the student teacher and the supervisor.

Appendix T: An example of an interview script for a teacher educator

Introduction by the interviewer:

The interview with teacher educator TEH took place in his office on 18 July 2018. To uphold confidentiality, the personal profile of the teacher educator is hereby withheld. The interview went on as follows:

I wish to welcome you to this interview in which I would like to hear your views and opinions on various aspects of teaching practice implemented by the University of Zambia in schools. As stated in the invitation letter, your participation is voluntary. For this reason, you may decline to answer any of the interview questions. The interview will be audio-recorded to facilitate collection of accurate information. Once transcription has been completed, I will give you a copy of the transcript for you to verify the accuracy of our conversation. All information you provide will be treated with utmost confidentiality.

Interviewer: Please share with me your understanding of teaching practice.

Participant: From my own understanding, (for me) teaching practice is a period when student teachers put into practice the theories, concepts, methodologies and all of the values they have acquired about teaching in a real classroom situation. It could be a school, a college or an institution dealing with education but they have to put into practice all that they have been learning. This is a period to link theory to practice.

Interviewer: According to you, what are the major objectives of teaching practice?

Participant: At the University of Zambia we have a very clear and theoretical understanding. I am using the word 'theoretical' very carefully. The way we practise it does not match with what it should be. We all know what we are supposed to do. Teaching practice gives students a chance to put into practice what they have learned; a chance to have a taste of the Zambian education system in relation to what they have been studying in their subject area. Each student will have a different experience according to the school they go to and their subject. Our objectives are very clear but they do not match with what we do in practice.

Interviewer: Kindly explain the activities that student teachers undertake in readiness for teaching practice.

Participant: One of the activities they engage in is that they attend lectures from different sections. Firstly, they do content; we help them acquire the content knowledge of their subject. In some teaching subjects, students do not learn the subject content in the School of Education. They learn it in the School of Humanities and Social Sciences or the School of Natural Sciences. Only two subjects are taught within (the School of Education), namely Religious Education and Civic Education. So that is another section. There is also another section where we help them learn the methodology on how to go and teach the content which they have learned. That is how they are going to teach it to learners in schools. In this regard, we help them acquire the pedagogical content knowledge; the pedagogy of how to teach the knowledge.

Another section within the School of Education helps student teachers to understand what education is. The courses are taught by different departments. We have the Department of Education Psychology, Sociology and Special Education. The Department has education subjects. Then we have the Department of Education Administration and Policy Studies which offers courses from first to fourth year. We have also a course in Curriculum Foundations and Principles offered by the Department of Language and Social Sciences Education. We ground them in the understanding of education because these will be educationists. We ground them in the pedagogy and the content.

But from my own point of view, what we do with our students is not enough. What we do is that we prepare them for the classroom in terms of teaching the subject area. But we do not do so much in preparing them for co-curricular activities. When they are in school they are supposed to be patrons of clubs and spearheading certain activities like preventive maintenance. We don't prepare them in that area and we don't even know what goes on with them in schools.

Interviewer: Could you highlight a few activities that student teachers are involved in before they go for teaching practice.

Participant: Okay. Peer teaching is within teaching methods. So, in every subject area that they are studying how to teach that subject area, the lecturers organize the students in small groups so that they can practice how to teach by teaching their own peers using the Zambian curriculum. They share topics, prepare a lesson and then teach their peers. After they have taught, their peers and lecturer critique the lesson together. This activity is conducted within the teaching methods course.

Interview: Is this one major activity that each student has to perform?

Participant: Yes, actually we have a regulation now in the Department of Language and Social Sciences Education that any student who has not done peer teaching cannot go for school experience. They have to do it and pass it. Even if they have passed methodology as a course they cannot be allowed to go for teaching practice if they have not passed peer teaching.

Interviewer: How much time is allocated to each of these activities?

Participant: Peer teaching is done when they are in third year because that is when they do the first methodology course. And it is put strategically. The first methodology course is given to those doing both major and minor. If one is doing a major in Geography and another a minor in geography, both will be mixed in one class. Peer teaching is done during the first methodology course. There is another methodology course that is done after school experience. This is an advanced course for only those doing majors. In this case, such students do peer teaching twice. How much time is given to students to do peer teaching varies. In some courses (subjects) they just do it once.

Interviewer: Why do they do it once?

Participant: It is because of the huge number of students. We have some courses like Civic Education where we have huge numbers. So, they might have a chance to do peer teaching only once. Then we have courses where students are few and they can't say because everyone has done peer teaching once then they should also do the same. In such courses, student teachers are allowed to do peer teaching 3 or 4 times. Those that are few benefit more than those who are many.

Interviewer: What arrangements does the University of Zambia make with supervising teachers and the school administration for student teachers' teaching practice?

Participant: I wouldn't say we make formal arrangements as a university with the schools. What we do is prepare a letter of introduction to head teachers or principals which spells out where the student is coming from. Then students will fill in their names, computer number, cell phone number and then sign it. I sign it on behalf of the school, put an official stamp and then a student goes with it to whichever school they want. We allow them to choose where to do school experience for logistical reasons to avoid students finding themselves where they have nowhere to stay. We also tell them to go to places where we can easily reach. Some students are disadvantaged because they are accepted in schools where they have no relatives. But these are the minority. In a province you may find 1 or 2. Students go to a school and it is up to the school to accept or not accept them. If they are rejected they have to find another school.

Interviewer: Why are student teachers rejected by some schools?

Participant: Schools complain that the University of Zambia simply disturbs the running of the school because they go there for a very short time like 4 weeks. They say there is no continuity in terms of the learners getting used to this person. What we did was to write a letter to all head teachers with whom we have been dealing. We thanked them for being helpful and explained why we find ourselves in this situation. It is how the university is arranged where students have to follow the institution calendar which is not in line with the school calendar. In addition, students who take courses from other schools have to come back when the university is in session. The School of Humanities and Social Sciences and the School of Natural Sciences offer courses that the majority of students have to attend. That is where we still have problems. But if the School of Education was 'self-contained' by having its own lecturers to teach subject content, we would not face this challenge. We will probably present a position paper to Senate and demand that we need our own calendar like the School of Medicine so that we can be in tune with the schools' calendar.

Interviewer: In your opinion, are the arrangements you make for teaching practice adequate? Explain.

Participant: In the past 2 years, there have been more and more students complaining that they are not accepted in schools. In the past it was not there. It is because of the short period given for school experience and also the time of the year that we allow them to go. For a long time, they have been going in the third term of the school calendar when there are examinations going on. And now the Ministry of General Education starts exams as early as October. For this reason, our students find themselves with a very short time to interact with the pupils in schools and that makes the head teachers to complain. They say it is not the right time to come and that it is for a short period. In short, it is because of the short period given to school experience and also the time of the year that we allow them to do it. In light of this, more and more students are rejected. Eventually they find a place to go. Last year, we had a case where two students failed completely to find a school to do teaching experience. So, they will be going this academic year.

Interviewer: For how long have you been involved in teaching practice supervision?

Participant: I have been involved in teaching practice since 2007.

Interviewer: Have you ever had any specialized training in supervision of student teachers?

Participant: Never.

Interviewer: How long is teaching practice in secondary school? In your opinion is this period adequate?

Participant: For the University of Zambia, it varies. When I just joined it was bit longer. It was for two months. Now it can be as short as 4 weeks. It has been reducing due to the unstableness of the academic calendar and also due to the changes that have taken place in schools. The examinations come as early as October. Six weeks is absolutely not enough. The more a student teacher is exposed to the school while they are studying, the better. This is because they will continuously be linking theory to practice.

Interviewer: How many times do student teachers do teaching practice before they graduate?

Participant: They go once; mostly in third year. Others who fail to go in the third year go in the fourth year.

Interviewer: How many times do you supervise a student teacher?

Participant: Once. I am actually working on an article regarding how we are doing school experience. I am calling that article: Hit and run, sink or swim: learning to teach and teaching to learn. I call it that way because of what I see. I say hit and run because we go in a class and talk to them for 20 minutes and then leave. Some of those students may be lucky to have a mentor who helps them. The majority (of student teachers) are on their own and so they will 'sink' if they don't 'swim'.

Interviewer: Do you foresee some kind of backlash on the implementation of teaching practice when you observe a student once and off you go?

Participant: Some of the students who are notorious also leave the school immediately the lecturer leaves. I had an experience of a student from xxxxxxxx Secondary School who after the lecturer left created a story and told the head teacher that there was a trip that the University of Zambia had organized and so he could not continue with the school experience. He just handed over the books and left. The friend to this student teacher called and told me about it. So those who are not disciplined like that student do not pass. He had to go back the following year to do teaching practice. In addition, we made sure he went back to the same school.

The other thing is that from my experience of observing either in-service or pre-service teachers, the day you go to observe them they don't sleep well the night before. They have to prepare because it has to be the best lesson of their lives. I see charts which sometimes they don't use. The last one I observed even brought a pot and cups for someone to do a role play of a mother. It has to be the best lesson and so they put in their best when we are going to observe them. After we leave they relax. So, if they remain in school they won't be very active because they know we won't be there to see them again. So that could be one of the disadvantages. During my training, I was observed 11 times and so I was on my toes all the time.

Now we give (lesson evaluation) forms to teachers to observe students and the experience I have had with teachers in schools is that their observations are not true. All the students they observe in the schools get distinctions. So, the schools are not helpful because their observations are not realistic. There are students I know who are not 'A' students but 'B' students. But the teachers give such students 'A' grades. So the mentoring in schools which we should rely on after observing them once is not there.

Interviewer: What are the main areas of focus during supervision of student teachers?

Participant: It all goes back to the definition of teaching. Teaching is the process of facilitating the acquisition of desirable skills, values, attitudes and knowledge. And these are zeroed to a particular lesson. So, the teacher is a facilitator who should facilitate the acquisition of desirable skills, values and knowledge. Who then is at the centre? According to the Focus on Learning document, it is the learner. So when I am in class observing, I pay attention to what the learners are doing because that is what brings about learning. The teacher is there to create an enabling environment. Ultimately the objectives of that lesson should be seen in the learner. So, I focus on the learner and my question throughout the lesson is to find out if there is learning taking place. For example, if the lesson is on adverbial phrases, I want to see if the learners are learning adverbial phrases. If there is nothing happening with the learner no matter what the teacher is doing, no learning is taking place.

Interviewer: Do you offer advice or training to supervising teachers on how to supervise student teachers?

Participant: No, that does not happen.

Interviewer: What help do you give to student teachers on teaching practice?

Participant: Not much help is given apart from encouraging them to continue working hard.

Interviewer: What help do you give to supervising teachers during teaching practice?

Participant: I do not think there is anything we do about that. No, that does not happen. I have been in school supervising many times and I don't even meet the teacher. If I met him or her it was accidental maybe because I went to the staffroom and I was introduced to him or her.

Interviewer: Comment on readiness of student teachers to teach in terms of knowledge of subject matter and teaching skills.

Participant: Most of the students have no problem with understanding content because it is rich. They even go beyond what is expected. The problem is with methodology. Many student teachers understand the content but a number of them struggle to teach it because we spend very little time on methodology. So, a number of teachers from UNZA who are now very good teachers learned along the way. I think most of our students have no problem with content.

Interviewer: How many times do you assess a student teacher's lesson?

Participant: It is done only once.

Interviewer: How effective is the assessment tool (lesson evaluation form) for evaluating student teachers on teaching practice?

Participant: I think the instrument (lesson evaluation form) seems to be weak for some departments in the School. They have devised their own because they say it does not meet their needs. Another department has also expressed a need to devise their own. They said the tool was not working for them. So that leaves the other subjects with the tool that we have been using. So from that perspective, it means the tool we have been using for a long time does not meet the needs of the other subjects.

Interviewer: One of the items on the general information and instructions sheet for the University of Zambia entitled ED303 School Teaching Practice is that a student is expected to take part in co-curricular activities. But what I notice is that on that lesson evaluation form there is no provision for that item. Why is it so?

Participant: Like I said in my introductory remarks, we don't focus on co-curricular activities at the University of Zambia. We don't even talk about them. We are very much focused on the cognitive and we have neglected the psychomotor and yet this is what we teach our students. We forget that they also need to prepare the learner in terms of psychomotor skills. And now the revised curriculum is challenging us more because it promotes the acquisition of competence, knowledge, skills, values and attitudes which our student teachers here are not getting in totality. They are only getting knowledge and only a bit of skills with very little values and attitudes.

Interviewer: On the same teacher educators' lesson evaluation form, there is a statement at the bottom. It reads, 'the categories are not equally weighted and as such the total does not necessarily translate to a grade'. The question is how is uniformity among the lecturers maintained when awarding the final grade?

Participant: Actually that statement is just to protect ourselves because of the short duration that the students are in school and the number of times we observe them. Because of that we can't confidently come up with a grade. So, all we do is look at the general comments a lecturer makes. If there are indications that a student is a potential good teacher, we put an 'S' for satisfactory. If we put 'U' it is unsatisfactory, meaning a student has failed teaching practice. We cannot, therefore, confidently come up with a grade because of the duration of the student teacher in school and the fact that we observe them once.

Interviewer: At what point do you review the conduct of teaching practice with supervising teachers and/or school administration?

Participant: We only had it once when we went round with the Dean to Central and Copperbelt provinces to ask heads of schools what they thought about our students. Before I took over the School Teaching Practice office, my predecessor also organised a seminar with all head teachers in Lusaka. They were invited to the University of Zambia to discuss what they thought about our school teaching practice. And they were very honest with us. They said they were not happy with what we were doing because of the duration and the time that teaching practice takes place. They also complained about the behaviour of our students and that some of them did not dress appropriately.

Interviewer: How regular are these meetings with school authorities?

Participant: No. we don't have a planned programme. So we may go for the next 10 years without hearing from them or we may hear from them tomorrow.

Interviewer: Please share your views regarding the effectiveness of teaching practice implemented by the University of Zambia in schools.

Participant: It is not effective. We are doing it as a fulfilment of a requirement. We are just doing it so that we say we did it. Actually, if we were to be very frank with ourselves, we are wasting university resources because what our students are doing is not benefitting them much. Some benefit but not to the extent that they are really grounded. Actually, let me just say it is not effective, not even very effective but it is simply not effective.

Interviewer: What role does a supervising teacher play in teaching practice?

Participant: In my view, the major role is to guide and motivate a student teacher. I say so because even for me when I go and observe the student, I will guide the student where I think there are deficiencies. I compliment the student where they did well and to improve where they did not do well. Actually, if I were to suggest a way of observing students which I normally do, I would go for clinical supervisions. This is where I get the lesson plan 2 days before the lesson and I sit down with the student and ask why they want to teach that way. I would ask the student to teach in a certain way. Then the student would explain why they want to teach the way they have planned. I can suggest certain books and we go in class. After class, we sit down and look at the lesson, the changes they made and so on. I then explain how I would know the teacher is able to adjust to the needs of the learners and that is good. I would focus on what was not well done. One lesson will lead to the other that is called clinical supervision. Like I said, we go there once. But if I had my way I would suggest that we go even twice.

Interviewer: It is known that there are very few lecturers who are directly involved in teaching methods. In this regard, how are you meeting the need for professionalism?

Participant: That is a very difficult one. I would say there is not much being done. I am leaving room for something to happen, because I have seen colleagues who attend conferences. These conferences touch on issues of school experience. But not everyone goes for these conferences or reads on their own on school experience. When it is time for school experience that is when they think about it. It is compounded by the fact that we as lecturers are not in touch with the schools. The ideal situation would be that me as a lecturer I should have a class at Munali Secondary School and teach English language. So, I would teach at UNZA and also at Munali so that even when I tell my students what is expected of them, I am basing it is on experience. In Germany, engineering lecturers have a time when they go to industries to work during holidays. So they teach whatever they see at the work place. I suggested this kind of thing in my PhD. If you read my PhD there is a section in which I talk about professors and lecturers teaching in secondary schools.

Interviewer: In which way(s) do you collaborate with the school administration and supervising teachers in the conduct of teaching practice?

Participant: What we do is to encourage our lecturers who go to observe the students to see the head teacher immediately they reach school. They have to pay a courtesy call to the head, introduce themselves, and seek permission to see our students. After observation is done, before they leave they have to go back to the head teacher, say thank you and write in the log book. I think that is one way in which we deal with our colleagues. I don't think there is anything more we are doing about that.

Interviewer: From your experience, what would you say are the major challenges of teaching practice conducted by the University of Zambia during i. Training of student teachers and, ii. Implementation of teaching practice in secondary schools?

Participant: One of the challenges is that we spend very little time on teaching methods; they do very little on that. Then the teaching methodology is also done too theoretically. If we are to teach learners how to teach summary, it has to be teaching of summary, not how can summary be taught. Therefore, as a lecturer, I should not define how to teach summary but demonstrate how to teach summary. Our students learn everything theoretically. This is a big challenge.

During training, we have members of staff who also have never taught. They help to prepare teachers and also go to observe lessons. That is a big problem. We also have issues of facilities. I have never seen, for example, our students who are studying language using any room for reading books and so on. This is because facilities are a problem. Our students here are not taught how to develop teaching and learning materials during peer teaching. They can produce materials a month before they go for teaching experience. Unfortunately, we don't have such facilities. We also don't prepare them in co-curricular activities. All they do is attend lessons from morning to evening. I have never seen them go to a football pitch. But when they go for school experience they are expected to be involved in co-curricular activities.

Another challenge that I talked about was that the duration for teaching practice is too short. In addition, the number of times we see (monitor) student teachers is quite short. Also the time we interact with them is also too short. As I told you it is a 'hit and run' affair. Another challenge is the issue of mentorship. When we leave them, they have no mentors. Some might be lucky to have mentors. We have had cases of students who have been charged for being mentored. A student called me from xxxxx Secondary school to tell me that the school was demanding K200 for using chalk and Manila paper and for being mentored. Schools are coming up with things that do not exist. That may be a challenge eventually.

Another challenge is that student teachers are not mentored. And I think there is this notion among the teachers in schools that those who come from the University of Zambia are bright and sharp so they can't be taught anything.

Interviewer: How can the conduct of the teaching practice programme for the training of secondary school teachers in Zambia be improved?

Participant: First of all, we need to change the structure in terms of how the schools have been arranged. We need to have the School of Education run its own calendar. And that can happen if content, methodology and education courses are taught within the School of Education. It will mean those teaching geography content will have to migrate and come to the School of Education. We should have our own content lecturers and academic calendar. Then we can run our courses in such a

way that when our students are in year 3, term 2, there are no courses to be done but they will just go for teaching experience for a full term.

We can also make it in such a way that when they are in second year, they can work as assistant teachers. Actually, there are so many schools surrounding UNZA. There is Helen Kaunda, Leonard Chiluba, the two Munalis, Chelstone, Northmead, and Olympia. These are schools our students can easily reach. They can be assistant teachers like the programme I went through. To work as an assistant teacher would prepare them to be teachers. They will experience what it is to be a teacher because of teaching throughout the term. It would be good for them not to stick to one class so that they can learn from various teachers in case one teacher is not good.

But all that can only happen if UNZA changes the way it operates in terms of structure. What is being proposed is that we should become a college. If you look at the way Colleges of Education and Schools of Vocation are arranged around the world, the School of Education has its own campus physically. If I had my way, we would not have had Chalimbana University but we would have had the University of Zambia - Chalimbana Campus School of Education so that all of us here migrate to Chalimbana Campus and join our lecturer colleagues there. We would just boost the staff because our students need to be secluded like the School of Medicine.

Interviewer: You said in second year they become assistant teachers and in third year they go for teaching experience?

Participant: Yes. Then when they reach fourth year, they need to be grounded in their majors in content courses. When they come back, it will be consolidation. They will have acted as assistant teachers. They will have taught in third year and in fourth year, they consolidate all that they have experienced. So we can have courses specifically and strategically meant for consolidation.

Interviewer: What about in terms of collaboration with schools, do you have any suggestion?

Participant: What I would suggest is to have teachers come to demonstrate in our school. We would invite teachers to come and demonstrate a lesson. This is being

done at Charles Lwanga College of Education. Teachers can be invited as resource persons to come and conduct lesson demonstrations to student teachers.

Interviewer: Is there any additional information about teaching practice that you would like to share with me?

Participant: One thing that I have learned over the years is that preparing a teacher in a university where you have a Vice Chancellor in management that controls finances and does not understand how to prepare a teacher, is very difficult. That is why the suggestion of becoming a College of Education may lead to having a Vice Chancellor with an education background. At the moment, when we ask for resources they say, "all this money, this is a lot of money". They don't understand that producing a teacher can be expensive. In the last school experience for distance education students, the budget was prepared but the amount of money was slashed. We were told to work within the figure they had proposed. Because of that the quality of the exercise is compromised. Therefore, the arrangement of the College of Education is good. If you have somebody up there (in management) who does not understand what it takes to produce a teacher, school experience is a waste of resources. It's like saying preparing a medical doctor who goes to practice in a hospital is a waste of resources or having a veterinary doctor who is sent to a farm for practice is a waste of resources. So those are some of the challenges we face.

Interviewer: Thank you for taking part in this interview.